

THE AMERICAN MONTHLY

Review of Reviews.

VOL. XVIII.

NEW YORK, OCTOBER, 1898.

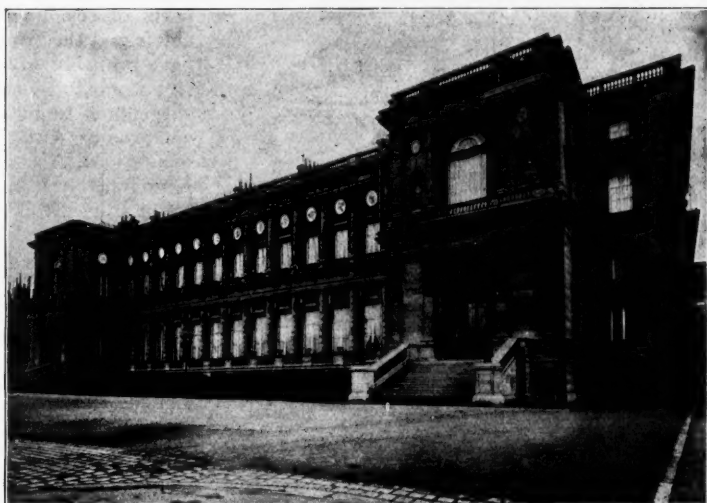
No. 4.

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

*Peace-Making
at Paris.*

The American peace commissioners sailed from New York on board the *Campania* on Saturday, September 17, in order to meet the Spanish commissioners at Paris on or before the date specified in the protocol, which was October 1. As finally constituted, the group of five American commissioners consisted of Judge Day, who resigned his office as Secretary of State on the day before he sailed; Senator Davis, of Minnesota, chairman of the Foreign Relations Committee; Senator Frye, of Maine, whose name stands second on that committee and who is also chairman of the Commerce Committee; Senator Gray, of Delaware, a prominent member of the Foreign Relations Committee, and the only Democrat on the board; and Mr. Whitelaw Reid, editor of the *New York Tribune*, formerly minister to France by President Harrison's appointment, and more recently a special representative of the United States at the celebration of the Queen's diamond jubilee. The work of these commissioners is in no sense akin to that of a board of arbitration, but is strictly diplomatic in its nature. The board will act under instructions from the administration at Washington, exercising only so much of discretion as the administration may have chosen to accord to it. Before sailing the commissioners were in close and protracted conference with Mr. McKinley, while Cabinet members were recalled from their vacations in order that the President's constitutional advisers might be consulted on every point

while the peace commissioners were still in Washington. The First Assistant Secretary of State, Professor Moore, accompanied the commission in the capacity of secretary. Mr. Moore's functions will be those of a secretary in the most important sense of the word; and by reason of his expert attainments in international law he will act as legal adviser of the commissioners. The board as constituted is entitled to the confidence of the country. Senators Davis and Gray are lawyers of eminence, ability, and remarkable attainments. Temperamentally they balance each other exceedingly well. Mr. Davis is what a few dozen persons in Boston and New York would stigmatize as an "imperialist" and a "jingo." Mr. Gray, thus far, has not been similarly labeled. It merely happens that Mr. Davis, as a Western man, knows the whole coun-



BUILDING OF THE MINISTRY OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS, PARIS, IN WHICH THE AMERICAN AND SPANISH COMMISSIONERS WILL HOLD THEIR SESSIONS.

try better and reaches conclusions with more swiftness and certainty. Judge Day has had less public experience, but he has no lack of confidence in his country, and his mind works along logical lines in a clear and direct fashion. Mr. Whitelaw Reid has the adaptability and quick mind of a long journalistic career. The commissioners will, therefore, most certainly work together in harmony, and they may be expected to show good judgment at all points. It is understood that they will not be disposed to tolerate any needless quibbling or delay. The commissioners hope to finish their work within six weeks.

The Philippines as the Crucial Issue. There is no very large point of principle or policy left open by the protocol except as respects the disposal of the Philippines. As we have observed from

month to month, there is no easy way visible by which we can withdraw from those distant islands. The inhabitants will not be willing to have the Spaniards retain possession of any part of the group; and the Spaniards, on their part, are not able to make any successful assertion of sovereignty in the face of continued insurgent opposition. The Philippine inhabitants would, on the other hand, evidently be readily



"A YANKEE PROTÉGÉ—THE FUTURE REPRESENTATIVE OF THE PHILIPPINES AT WASHINGTON."
From *La Revista Moderna* (Madrid).

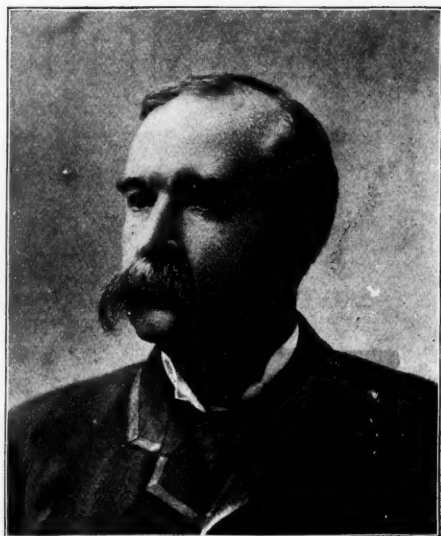


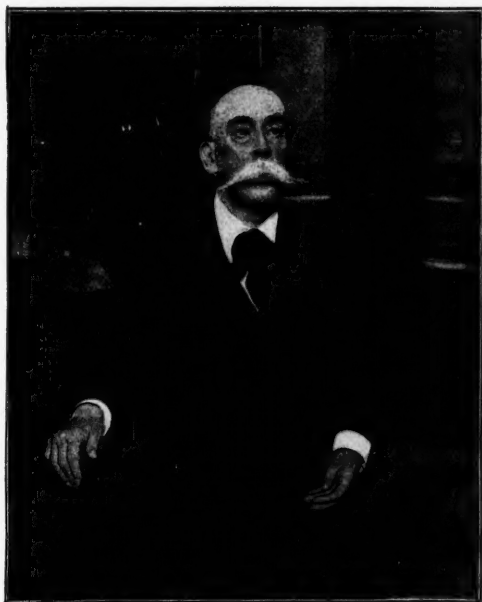
Photo by Bell.

SENATOR GEORGE GRAY, OF THE PEACE COMMISSION.

reconciled to the continued presence and oversight of the United States. An insurgent convention last month took that ground. Gen. Wesley Merritt departed several weeks ago from Manila, in order to meet the peace commissioners at Paris and give them the benefit of his observations. General Otis, meanwhile, has been in command of our troops at Manila, and seems to have shown excellent judgment in dealing with every question that has arisen. The earlier newspaper reports of serious friction between the insurgent chiefs and the American forces in the Philippines have probably given a wrong impression. The fact seems to be that the chief anxiety of the insurgents is to make sure that there shall be no compromise with the Spaniards under the terms of the Paris treaty, but that Spain shall withdraw as completely from the Philippines as from the West Indies. Certainly there is no simple solution except Spanish withdrawal. There is much reason to believe that the President, the Cabinet, and the peace commissioners found themselves irresistibly driven toward this conclusion early in September as they studied possible alternatives.

Actual Sentiment in Spain. Meanwhile, in spite of all reports of impending cabinet crises in Spain, the Sagasta ministry has held on its course. Public opinion has been surprisingly lethargic throughout the whole Spanish peninsula. For many weeks all constitutional guarantees have been suppressed, and the country has been governed by the absolute will of the ex-

ecutive officers without any regard to the rights of individuals as set forth in the organic law of the land. The press has been subjected to the strictest censorship. In view of the manner in which the daily newspapers have been muzzled, it is somewhat surprising that the cartoonists of *Don Quixote*, a number of whose drawings we are reproducing on subsequent pages, should have been allowed the liberty they have exercised in attacking Sagasta. It is tolerably clear, from our examination of a large number of Spanish papers, that—the colonies having become so serious a burden—the Spanish people have made up their minds to lose them all without much further display of opposition. Cuba has always been the one outlying possession for which the Spaniards felt a strong attachment. Having lost Cuba, and knowing that in any case they are certain to lose Manila, they look upon the whole series of beyond-sea island possessions as virtually surrendered. The Spanish commissioners at Paris will doubtless make a great show of haggling about the Philippines; but it will only be for the sake of gaining certain other advantages of detail in the working out of the treaty. If possible, in compensation for the Philippines, they will endeavor to devolve upon Cuba or this country a part of the so-called Cuban debt, and they will also try to make saving stipulations regarding the vast property holdings of the monastic orders in the Philippines. But there remains no considerable body of public sentiment in Spain that demands the retention of sovereign rights over any portion of the Philippine Islands. The inevitable has already been accepted.

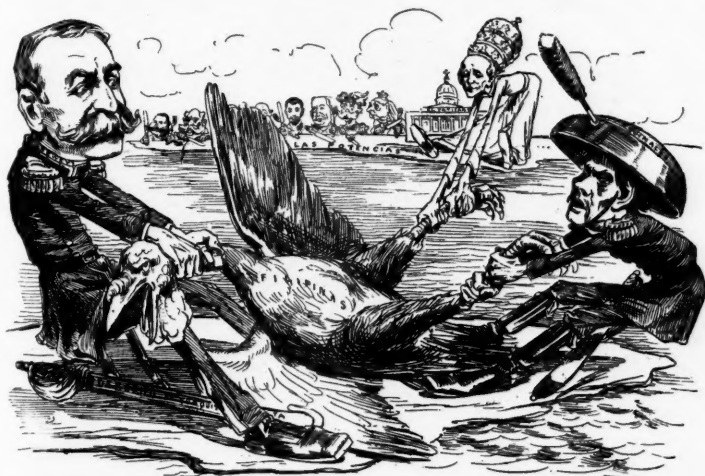


SEÑOR CASTELAR, THE QUIESCENT REPUBLICAN LEADER OF SPAIN.

*Apathy
and
Acquiescence.*

The Cortes came together at the call of the government in due course after the signing of the peace protocol, and, with much less of turbulence and uproar than had been expected, the Chambers obeyed Sagasta's demand and voted their authorization of the cession of the colonies. The Queen Regent in turn signed the fateful bill for the alienation of national territory. Sagasta refused

to give the Cortes any documents or information in detail, and a speedy adjournment was reached. There were naturally some fierce discussions behind the closed doors, but the logic of stern facts could not be talked down, and in any case Spain was to be ably represented at Paris by trusted men. The Chambers will probably not be in session again until after the conclusion of the work of the peace commissioners at Paris. Then, Sagasta promises, everything will be set forth in full. Carlism has shown itself somewhat uneasy and menacing, and the newspaper dispatches have given the impression that



DISPUTE OVER THE SPOILS.

From *El Hijo del Ahuizote* (City of Mexico).

Don Carlos' adherents were getting ready for early action under the guidance of the pretender. But unless there should occur some powerful awakening of the lethargic masses of the people, who thus far have seemed to want nothing at all except to be allowed to live and labor in peace and quiet, there will be no Carlist uprising and no republican revolution. The latest bull-fight interests the people of Madrid far more keenly than the work of the peace commission at Paris; and Barcelona simply longs for an end of wars and rumors of wars, in order that her interrupted commercial life may flow on in the usual channels. As for the rural districts, they are concerned with the crops and the vintage; and they would have nothing to complain of if they could get rid of war taxes and the impressment of their sons into the detested army service. All attempts to arouse Spain to any form of vigorous protest against the Sagasta policy or the results of the war have as yet shown no sign of success.

*Germany's
Covetous-
ness.*

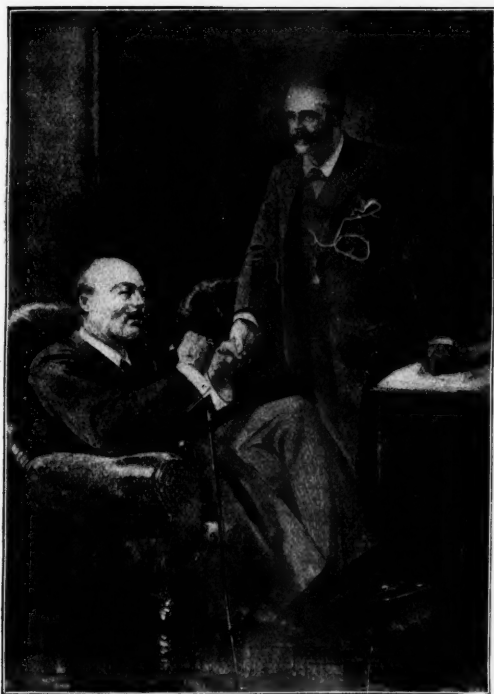
Thus the treaty of Paris, in all its principal features, must resolve itself simply into an embodiment of the demands that the United States may choose to make. Spain has neither the power nor the disposition to insist upon anything essentially different. Nor are there any foreign countries that will venture to dispute the conclusions. All European governments take it for granted that under the circumstances the United States must assume the task of administering the entire Philippine group. The only possible exception is Germany, which, though without any claim whatever to consideration in the settlement of the questions between Spain and the United States, is very eagerly in the market for colonial possessions. Germany has fondly hoped that in the general smash-up of Spain's colonies there might be a chance

to pick up a bargain. Her recent irritating behavior toward Admiral Dewey and the American navy and army in the Philippines has by no means tended to improve Germany's prospects in that quarter. There is some reason to believe, however, that the high officials at Berlin have seen a new light and that they have at length made the discovery that friendliness toward the United States and England, rather than bluster and ill-will, would best serve the legitimate aspirations of the great Teutonic nation. The simple fact is that the German population is growing very rapidly, while German manufactures and commerce are also forging ahead with every promise of a steady future growth. Germany wishes outlets for her people and her trade. In a very few years, if present tendencies remain unchanged, Germany will have twice the population of France, even though



THE REAPER IN THE MOUNTAIN MEADOW.—FROM "NUEVO MUNDO" OF AUGUST 31.

(This picture, from a very recent Spanish paper, shows the real spirit of a people who do not want wars or uprisings, but only a chance to live in peace.)



From the *Illustrated London News*.

THE ANGLO-GERMAN ALLIANCE—MR. BALFOUR AT THE FOREIGN OFFICE—A CALL FROM COUNT HATZFELDT.

(The unusual relative position is due to the indifferent health of Count Hatzfeldt.)

Germany every year sends forth a large number of emigrants, while France sends practically none. It is natural and also reasonable that the Germans should seek to provide in one way and another for the better security and the more comfortable expansion of the future hosts of the German brotherhood. England and the United States might readily enough fall in with Germany's plans and be of no little use to the German people if the right spirit were shown all around. As matters stand in the Philippines, however, it is to be feared that Germany has herself spoiled all her prospects. She has been exceedingly disagreeable in the tripartite arrangement for the management of Samoa; and the United States will not be disposed to tolerate the idea of having her for a neighbor in the Philippines.

*The New Deal
Between Ger-
many and
England.*

The German Foreign Office has at length made the discovery that the policy of nagging at England continually is not profitable. For the present, at least, that policy has been discontinued. Some kind of agreement was reached by Mr. Balfour last

month, acting as foreign minister in the absence of Lord Salisbury, and the German ambassador at London, acting for his government. It is understood that this agreement secures for England the full sanction by Germany of all points in the British-African programme. For example, the complete success of Sir Herbert Kitchener's expedition to Khartoum is likely to mean the permanent occupation of Egypt and the Soudan by England, and it is understood that Germany henceforth will support England as against France in all Egyptian questions. On the other hand, it is further understood that Germany has become reconciled to the English arrangement for obtaining control by purchase or lease from Portugal of Delagoa Bay. This, if true, would mean the abandonment by Germany of the support of President Kruger in his opposition to England's South African policy. British control of Delagoa Bay means the complete hemming in on all sides of the Transvaal Republic by British authority and influence.

*What Has
Germany
to Gain?*

Rumors are not so clear as to the counterbalancing advantages that Germany is to derive from the new understanding with England. Undoubtedly, however, the Germans are to receive some *quid pro quo*, and among other things it is believed that their projects for railroad-building in Asia Minor and their aspirations for increased influence in the Turkish empire (and in general toward the southeast) are henceforth to be encouraged, rather than antagonized, by Great Britain. Meanwhile, it is vaguely in the air that the reestablishment of a good understanding between England and Germany is to be attended by an endeavor to smooth relations between Germany and the United States. It must continue to be the American policy to cultivate friendly and harmonious relations with all nations, while endeavoring most of all to maintain harmony with Great Britain. As for Germany, nothing would in the long run be more advantageous than the intimate friendship of the governments at London and Washington. The German Emperor is preparing in the most elaborate way for a visit to Syria and the Holy Land, where at Jerusalem a new Lutheran church is to be dedicated late in October. Some of the newspapers have written about this proposed journey as if it were merely a sentimental affair, planned by the eccentric Emperor with a view to exhibiting himself in a new rôle. Whether or not there may be some more or less fantastic and merely spectacular phases to the proposed pilgrimage, there is also believed by the well informed to be plenty of hard business



THE NEW GERMAN CHURCH IN JERUSALEM TO BE DEDICATED IN PRESENCE OF THE KAISER ON OCTOBER 31.

in it all. Germany has plans of considerable moment affecting the eastern Mediterranean, and her aims in those regions will not be relished by the Russians. It would behoove the Emperor, therefore, to have British countenance, and it would also be worth his while to have the moral approval of America.

The Czar's Manifesto.

The crowned heads of Europe have, for one reason or another, been very prominent in the past few weeks. The German Emperor's plans and movements, which always furnish international journalists with a fair amount of weekly news and gossip, have been thrown a little into the background by the prominence which the young Russian Czar has attained. This new sovereign has kept himself so much in reserve that the outside world as yet knows very little of his personality. Since his brilliant coronation one had read very little of his doings. He astonished Europe late in August by issuing a manifesto (handed to the ambassadors at St. Petersburg on August 24 and published in the United States on August 29) on behalf of disarmament and the permanent peace of the world. Upon the practical side, his manifesto took the form of a request to the civilized governments of the earth that they should send representatives to a great conference which should consider the

whole question of the modern military system. In public, all statesmen have avowed their belief in the sincerity and lofty motives of the Czar and have highly commended his proposals. In private, nearly all the diplomats and statesmen of the European world, if more or less authentic undercurrents of report may be trusted, are taking a decidedly cynical tone.

What Peace Means to Russia.

One thing at least is absolutely certain, and that is that Russia is profoundly desirous of keeping the peace and is very far from being prepared to wage war with either Germany or England. It will be a number of years before the Trans-Siberian Railway will be nearly enough completed to be used for transporting troops and supplies to Corea, northern China, or any of those regions where there has been so much friction between British and Russian interests. It would be hopeless for the Russian soldiers to attempt to cope on the Chinese coasts with the English ships. Russia has plenty of men under arms and could recruit still vaster forces; but her resources are so undeveloped that in a great war it would be well-nigh impossible to transport or supply large Russian armies, and in such respects Germany is incomparably superior. Russia has every reason for desiring a long period of profound peace. Her statesmen have observed the progress of



MONUMENT TO ALEXANDER II., AT MOSCOW, DEDICATED ON AUGUST 28 IN PRESENCE OF THE CZAR.

the United States, and realized the fact that the material greatness of this country is due to the immense development of the Mississippi Valley and the far West in the more than thirty years that have followed the Civil War. The profound object of Russia's policy is to build railroads, open mines, bring vast areas of wheat lands into cultivation, and, in short, to build up the nation upon a basis of economic progress and prosperity.



Count Muraviev. The Czar.

THE CZAR AND HIS FOREIGN MINISTER.

This being true, Russia would gladly obtain relief from the enormous pecuniary burdens imposed upon her by the maintenance of her huge armies. She needs the money for railroads and the agencies of peaceful development. But she is the victim of the prevailing military system of Europe and considers it necessary to go armed if her neighbors do the same. It has been very much the European habit of mind to regard Russia as the great menace to the world's peace; but the Russians take precisely the opposite view of their position and are very far indeed from wishing to provoke a war. Moreover, they are shrewd diplomats and have scored great points of late years. As matters stand, they have nothing to gain and very much to lose by going to war. The new Czar will keep the peace.

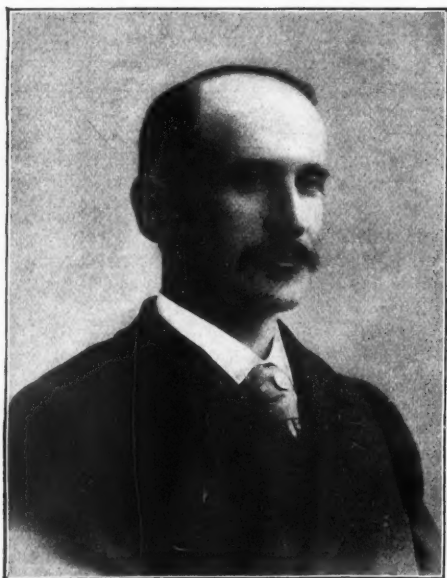
The power that seemed to be the most disagreeably surprised by the Czar's proposal was the Czar's own ally, France. For more than twenty-five years the French people, at almost countless expense, have been building up their immense military machine, with the one object of using it when the opportunity should offer to undo the results of the war of 1870. They entered into the existing alliance

with Russia in order to make their general position more secure for the accomplishment of their one great national aim. But the universal peace movement at the present time, with disarmament as its chief object, would mean the permanent loss of the Rhine provinces. It is true that France does not enjoy the financial burdens of the military system, but she is not prepared to give up her cherished revenge and the recovery of Alsace-Lorraine for the mere sake of lighter taxes. There are worse things, however, than the loss of provinces and the abandonment of cherished schemes of revenge. Militarism in France has been at the expense of civil liberty. There is no national cause so great or so worthy that it should ever be prosecuted at the expense of simple justice to the humblest individual. French aspirations have depended upon the army, and thus the army has become the object of national devotion. Whatever might tend to discredit the army must be destroyed at all hazards. The public opinion of France has insisted upon holding Dreyfus guilty of the crime of selling military secrets to foreign governments because somebody had certainly been guilty; and Dreyfus, as a Jew, could be made the scapegoat with less reflection upon the army administration than any other solution of the matter. Recent events have opened up the whole Dreyfus question once more, with some prospect at last that the truth may prevail. It is a hideous tale of crime.

The Dreyfus Case Again.

In the first place, then, not to complicate the story with details at every point, it is entirely true that French military secrets were sold to the governments of Germany and Italy. A regular service was maintained through the agency of the German military *attaché* at Paris. There is practically nothing of moment in the French War Office in the way of possible plans of campaign and orders in detail for the mobilization of troops that the War Office at Berlin does not possess in exact duplicate. All this information has been purchased from French officers by the German Government. When the facts are all known it will probably be common news, as it is now an open secret among politicians and military men in Germany, that the "heavy villain" in France was Major Esterhazy, who was paid a regular monthly stipend and who made use in his own way of others in the French army. The Germans insist that Dreyfus is absolutely innocent and so do the Italians. The new French ministry, which came in some weeks ago under the prime ministership of Brisson, with Cavaignac as minister of war, held exactly the same attitude toward the Dreyfus question as the preceding ministry. On July 7 Cavaignac,

the new minister of war, made an elaborate speech in the Chamber of Deputies, in which he reviewed the entire Dreyfus subject, assured the Chamber that he was absolutely convinced of the guilt of Dreyfus, and rested his argument in particular upon a certain letter which had been written by the German military *attaché* to the



M. CAVAIGNAC, EX-MINISTER OF WAR.

Italian military *attaché*—the French secret service having obtained possession of the letter—in which the transactions with Dreyfus were mentioned in an entirely unmistakable manner. The German officer in question, who was no longer in Paris, but now in Berlin, proceeded to inform his Emperor "on his honor as a soldier" that he had never written any such letter and that it was a clumsy forgery. The Italian officer, in turn, assured his government that he had never received any such letter and had never been concerned in any of the transactions with Dreyfus mentioned in it. Whereupon it was arranged in Berlin and in Rome that the French ambassadors should be brought into contact with these *attachés*, who had formerly been in Paris, in order to receive from them the same assurances. The French ambassadors, in turn, promptly notified their government at Paris, and Cavaignac could, under the circumstances, of course, do nothing less than subject the letter in question to a very careful expert examination. It had seemed to be genuine until its character was called into question, but when once examined critically it was

readily enough found to be what the German officer had declared it to be—namely, a palpable forgery. The authorship was quickly traced to Colonel Henry, a trusted officer of the secret intelligence bureau who had taken a leading part in the conviction of Dreyfus and in the acquittal of Esterhazy. When Cavaignac brought the matter home to him, Henry confessed that he had himself forged the letter. Whereupon he was arrested and thrown into the fort at Mont Valerian. His suicide by means of a razor was duly announced the following morning.

Colonel Henry was a plain, straightforward officer, almost insanely devoted to the army, and apparently without personal motives for his misconduct. It is generally believed, therefore, that in forging the letter he had been the tool of other men of a more designing and corrupt character, and it is also generally believed that his suicide, or



THE LATE COLONEL HENRY,
CHIEF OF SECRET INTELLIGENCE BUREAU.

murder, in his cell was with the motive of protecting others more guilty than himself. It is still stoutly maintained by the enemies of Dreyfus and the defenders of the army policy that, quite apart from this particular forged letter, the evidence against Dreyfus was ample. It is not denied, however, that it was entirely secret evidence, and that neither Dreyfus himself nor his legal counsel has ever had an opportunity to know what the testimony against him was and, much less, an opportunity to refute it.



GENERAL ZURLINDEN.

(Who was minister of war and twice military governor of Paris within a few days last month.)



GENERAL RENOUARD.

(Who succeeded General Boisdeffre as chief of the general staff of the French army.)

Under the circumstances, the whole world has now abundant reason for reversing the ordinary rule and considering Dreyfus innocent until he is proved guilty, and for considering the whole inner clique of army men at Paris guilty until they can demonstrate their freedom from complicity in the forgeries and crimes that Colonel Henry could not have committed without accomplices. As matters stand, it is still uncertain whether or not there will be a revision of the Dreyfus case. The confession and suicide of Colonel Henry has at least affected public opinion in France to a considerable extent, so that many of the men who persecuted Zola for his righteous and magnificent championship of Dreyfus some months ago have seen the error of their ways. Premier Brisson himself, who has always been accounted a just and courageous man, is in favor of a reëxamination of the whole subject. Cavaignac stubbornly refused to agree with Brisson and left the cabinet on September 3. His successor was chosen in the person of General Zurlinden, the Military Governor of Paris. He in turn resigned on September 17 and was succeeded by General Chanoiné. General Boisdeffre, chief of staff of the French army, retired promptly on the strength of Colonel Henry's confession. It will be remembered that during the Esterhazy

and Zola trials General Boisdeffre had borne himself in court in the most high-handed and insolent manner, asserting the claims of the army as against the fair and orderly presentation of evidence. If all these sickening disclosures might only have the effect to abate the French passion for the army and for military glory, the humiliation would not have been in vain. A few weeks ago Esterhazy posed before the adoring populace of Paris as the champion of the army and the flower of French valor and chivalry. Now he is in London, a miserable fugitive, selling his confessions of crime to the newspapers for his daily bread.

*Assassination
of an
Empress.*

As the date was drawing near for the celebration of the fiftieth anniversary of the accession of Francis Joseph of Austria, the aged monarch seemed—according to reports from Vienna—to grow more and more apprehensive of impending calamity. Few contemporary rulers have suffered more of bereavement and disappointment than Francis Joseph; and since the death of his only son Rudolph some ten years ago he has ceased to expect anything but misfortune. He had no heart whatever for the impending festivities of the jubilee, and had only longed to have them safely

over. The calamity came in an unexpected quarter. On September 10 his wife, the Empress Elizabeth, who had been sojourning in Switzerland, was stabbed to death by an Italian assassin as she was about to go on board a steamboat at Geneva. The tragic affair was shocking, as are all such cruel and cowardly deeds of the miscreant anarchists of Europe; and the blow of

the sudden news must have told heavily upon the declining strength of the old Emperor. It is not necessary, however, to



THE EMPEROR FRANCIS JOSEPH.

(From a photograph of same date as that of the Empress.)

be so hypocritical as to ignore certain perfectly well-known facts, such, for example, as that the Empress had not lived with the Emperor for years, had not figured at court, nor had in any public sense participated in Austrian affairs. She had entirely separate tastes and interests, and her eccentricities bordered very closely upon insanity. Her death did not possess any direct political significance, nor did it affect in any manner the future of the Austrian throne. The murderer had no motive, apparently, apart from the purpose of all European anarchists to make it more and more clear that it is extra-hazardous to bear the title of an emperor, empress, or anything in that line. Elizabeth possessed noble personal qualities and was especially beloved in Hungary. In her younger days she was a famous beauty. She was born in 1837 and was married at sixteen.

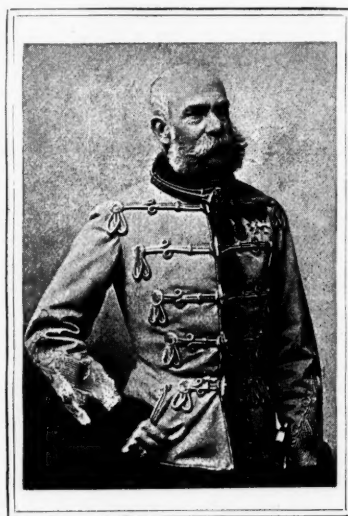
The assassination of an empress counts for more in certain circles than the massacre of a thousand peasants. So it happens that the newspapers of last month gave

a great deal more space to the stabbing of the eccentric absentee wife of the Austrian Emperor, who roamed about Europe in pursuit of her own private, unimportant whims, than to the frightful slaughter of Christians by Mohammedans in the island of Crete. If the European powers had only supported Prince George of Greece when he made his raid for the purpose of quieting Crete and annexing it to Greece, much subsequent trouble would have been avoided. For example, there would have been no Turkish campaign in Thessaly. Through all these weary months the European powers have tried to maintain a joint naval and military control of Crete without, however, sending away the Turkish troops. The recent massacre of Christians, which seems to have been carried on mainly by the Turkish soldiers themselves, had its immediate beginning in a quarrel with certain Englishmen; and it seems that before the whole affair was at



THE EMPRESS ELIZABETH.

(From a photograph taken in the early 60s.)



THE EMPEROR FRANCIS JOSEPH.

(As he now appears.)

an end England lost about as many subjects by reason of this uprising in Crete as in the battles of the memorable campaign which has just succeeded in capturing Khartoum. If Lord Salisbury had only sided courageously with the Greeks at the proper moment, this retribution would have been spared. The British admiral has now acted with much energy, and his ultimatum has led the Sultan to consent reluctantly to the disarmament of the Mohammedans in Crete. England would have the hearty approval of the United States if she should proceed to settle the Cretan question once for all.

*The
Queen
of Holland.*

The coronation ceremonies in Holland constituted one of the most attractive and picturesque features of last month's international news. According to the constitution of the Netherlands, the hereditary monarch ascends the throne at the age of eighteen. Queen Wilhelmina was born on the last day of August, 1880. Her father, the late King of Holland, died nearly eight years ago. Her mother, in the capacity of Queen Regent, has held the esteem of the Netherlands and has given her daughter an excellent training. Holland enjoys a very high measure of civil liberty and popular self-government, and the monarchy survives only by virtue of strict respect for the constitution of the country, genuine devotion to the promotion of the best interests of the people, and exemplary conduct in all respects. Whatever may be said of other continental nations, the Dutch people show no signs of decadence. They are excellent administrators of important colonial possessions, and it is to be hoped that their fortunate and prosperous career as a nation may suffer no blights in the future. The one thing above all to be guarded is the national independence. Germany is anxious to absorb Holland, and would be delighted to



QUEEN WILHELMINA.

(From a new photograph. See also frontispiece.)

furnish the young Queen with a husband from the ranks of the German princes. She shows a wise disinclination, however, to marry in haste. Her mother, now "Queen Dowager," who is still a young woman of forty, was a daughter of Prince George Victor of Waldeck.



BONFIRES ON THE DYKES OF THE ZUYDER ZEE IN HONOR OF QUEEN WILHELMINA.

*The Reopening
of the
Soudan.*

The great attempt of the Anglo-Egyptian troops, under command of Sir Herbert Kitchener, to move an army from Cairo up the Nile to the capital of the revolted Soudan provinces has been crowned with complete success. The battle of Atbara on April 8, duly mentioned in the May number of the REVIEW—a battle in which many thousands of the Khalifa's men were slain—marked the beginning of the last stage of an expedition that had been on the move for about two years. The remaining march to Khartoum had simply to wait for the proper condition of the Nile from the point of view of the gunboats accompanying the expedition. Omdurman, it should be understood, is the new capital of the Soudan, built by the Mahdi after his seizure and destruction of Khartoum in 1885, at which time General Gordon was killed. Omdurman had grown to be a much larger town than Khartoum

ever was, but its buildings were far less substantial. The relative location of the places will be seen at once by reference to our map. As General Kitchener's expedition of 25,000 men, mostly native Egyptian troops, approached its final objective at Omdurman, the Khalifa's army rashly but bravely came forth to meet the enemy. Machine guns played a large part in the fearful mas-

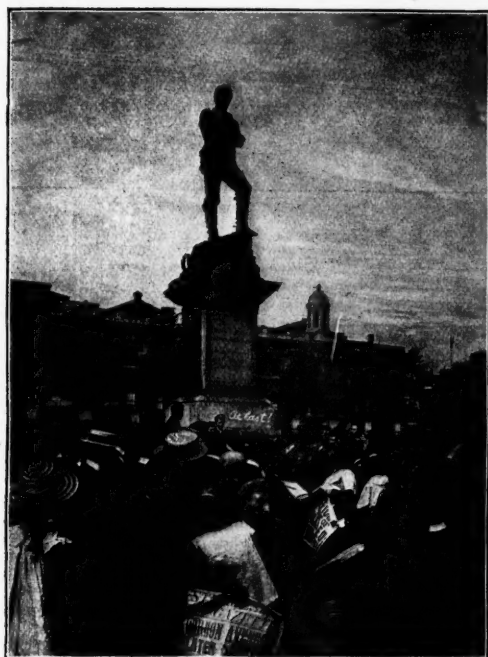


SIR HORATIO HERBERT KITCHENER.
(The Sirdar of the Egyptian army.)

sacre of the brave Dervish fighters. The British losses were, comparatively, only a little handful of men. The first reports were to the effect that 5,000 of the Khalifa's men were left dead on the field, while subsequent reports made the number very much greater, some estimates going up almost to 20,000. The fanatical movement of the early 80s, led by the Mahdi, had resulted in the absolute closing up of one of the most promising and prosperous regions of the whole African continent, a region occupied at that time by not less than 12,000,000 people. Mahdism has desolated the Soudan; agriculture and trade have been destroyed; the population has been reduced about one-half—and the fire of fanaticism has at length burned itself out. If the result of the victory of the United States over Spain shall have resulted in the material improvement of the condition of 8,000,000 people in the Philippines and 2,000,000 or more in the West Indies, it is to be remembered that this splendidly managed expedition of General Kitchener will have brought even greater succor and blessing to the millions of human beings in the eastern Soudan. To declare, in the



MAP TO ILLUSTRATE THE ADVANCE OF GENERAL KITCHENER.



GORDON'S STATUE AT TRAFALGAR SQUARE, LONDON.
(Scene on the receipt of the news of the fall of Khartoum.)

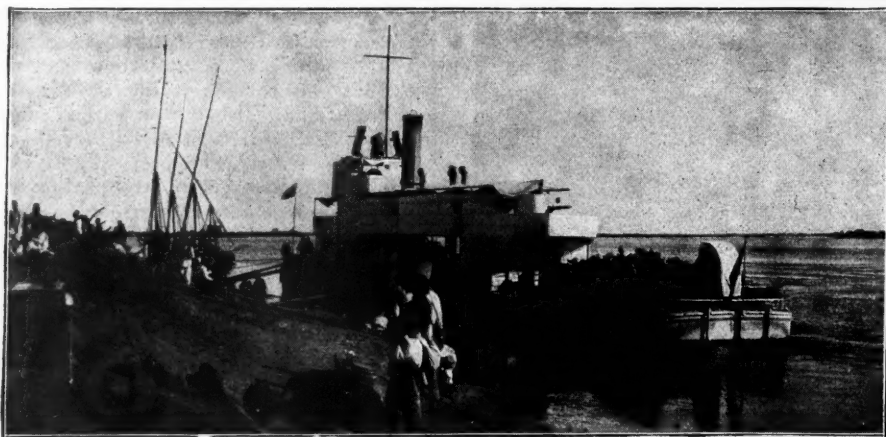
language of the German Emperor's dispatch, that the victory at Omdurman "at last avenges poor Gordon" is to take altogether the wrong tone. Englishmen can afford to be superior to the spirit of revenge in dealing with African problems. We prefer to regard General Kitchener's expedition not as a war of revenge, but as a practical manifestation of the spirit of peace and good-will toward men—a constructive task in the interests of humanity and civilization. It will not do us any harm in the United States to understand how systematic was every feature of this expedition. The care of the troops and the working out of difficult problems of supply constituted the real triumph of General Kitchener's management. In justice to ourselves, on the other hand, it must be remembered that former British expeditions have been fraught with disaster, and that the perfect organization of this latest one grew out of much sad and bitter experience. General Kitchener had a free hand in organizing the expedition, and although we are told that a great deal of social and political pressure was exerted by various people who wanted commissions or some other sort of honorable or profitable connection with the affair, all such pressure was sternly resisted and every man chosen on his strict personal merits.

England's
Restored
Prestige.

It is wonderful how a bit of well-earned success sometimes clears the atmosphere, and how fair-weather friends at once come crowding about with their congratulations. It had been seriously feared in the earlier stages of General Kitchener's expedition that the French were proposing to cut across from their holdings in the western Soudan to a point on the Nile above Khartoum, at or about Fashoda, for the sake of preventing the English from going any further. The seriousness of such a proposition can only be understood when one remembers the peculiar nature of the Nile. If the French were in full possession even at so remote a point as Fashoda, they could at any time they chose so divert the water as to ruin the whole of Egypt, which owes its life to the periodical overflow and to irrigation. The French, however, have now quite disclaimed any intention to regard the Fashoda expedition as anything else except a private exploring party, and there is no disposition in any quarter to oppose the still further advance of the English. With Khartoum as a headquarters, General Kitchener will readily make his authority felt in every outlying direction. The French press has spoken in high terms of the expedition, the Germans have assumed a wholly congratulatory tone, and in short Kitchener's success gives the touch of prestige that was needed to assure once and for all the entire British programme in the African continent. It is true that Mr. Cecil Rhodes, though



THE MAHDI'S TOMB AT OMDURMAN.

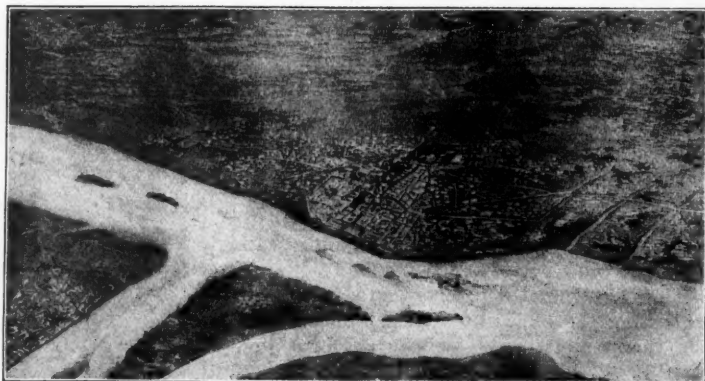


ONE OF THE NEW STERN-WHEEL GUNBOATS ON THE NILE.

elected himself, has failed to secure a progressive majority in the Cape Colony Parliament. Nevertheless, the Cape Colony elections have been so heavily counterbalanced by the brilliant achievement of Sir Herbert Kitchener, and by the Anglo-German agreement about the control of Delagoa Bay, that nothing can now prevent the very rapid carrying out of Mr. Cecil Rhodes' great project of a through railroad from Cape Town to Cairo. Moreover, while the British outlook in Africa has thus been cleared up, the Chinese situation has also been greatly relieved. Lord Salisbury seems to have abandoned his plan for the maintenance of the Chinese empire on the old basis, and to have fallen in with the new status of Russia in northern China, on the agreement that Russia will recognize the relative ascendancy of Great Britain in the Yang tse-Kiang Valley. Thus China seems destined quite speedily to be cut up into spheres of influence. Li Hung Chang, who had for some time past been using his position in favor of Russia and against England, is reported to have been shorn of his official authority in token of a new deal all around. All things considered, October 1, 1898, finds the prestige and influence of the English-speaking peoples greatly enhanced by virtue of the events of one brief season. Best of all, recent American and English victories benefit the whole world.

*The President
and the
Conduct of
the War.*

We present to our readers in this number of the REVIEW three very striking articles having to do with the conduct of our national affairs. They are written with sincerity and with a manifest purpose to be fair and to keep all statements well within the bounds of truth. The first of the three, entitled "The Man at the Helm," is a characterization of President William McKinley in the light of what he has accomplished in the period of a year and a half since his inauguration. The view taken is a broad one, and the attempt is made to bring out salient things without reference to contradictory details. The President's management of our national affairs has unquestionably gained the great admiration of statesmen throughout the whole civilized world. It has also commended itself in a very remarkable de-



BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF OMDURMAN AND KHARTOUM.

(The promontory on the left is occupied by the ruins of Khartoum, and lying in the center is the island of Tuti, while on the other side of the river is the wide-spreading mud-built town of Omdurman.)

gree to the people of the United States, regardless of party, who have supported the President through the past half year with a growing confidence in him and with an almost unprecedented absence of partisan rancor or cavil. The second article, entitled "Medical and Sanitary Aspects of the War," is a review of one gravely important phase of public administration, with regard to precise and detailed facts. The third article discusses the war rather from the point of view of military strategy and army organization, with some guarded but specific criticisms. Some of our readers may be disposed to find in the second and third articles the material for an argument against the strongly eulogistic tone of the first. But it does not seem to us necessary to hold President McKinley responsible for all the unhappy consequences of imperfect military administration. It is the War Department that is on trial.

*Those
Staff
Appointments.*

The President certainly gave his countenance to some fearful mistakes. He permitted, for example, the appointment of a great number of inexperienced and incompetent young nobodies to important staff positions, through a system of political trading and dickering that was enough to demoralize a far better organization of military supply departments than our own. It is a long time ago, now, since Mr. Gladstone abolished the English system of the purchase of army commissions. But the practice we have witnessed this year of giving commissions in the United States army to politicians for their beardless sons, or for the sons of constituents in the payment of political debts, is incomparably worse than the old English method of selling army commissions for spot cash. Some of these youths whose physical and other disqualifications were ignored by direct orders from those high in authority at Washington, were subsequently put in charge of the commissary supplies of large bodies of troops. A fitter place for several of them would have been in their mothers' nurseries. President McKinley's grave preoccupations gave a certain set of gentlemen an opportunity for the political deviltry to which is traceable a part of the needless hardships incurred by our troops. So far as we are aware, the navy administration has been perfectly free from all such grounds of complaint. From the Secretary of the Navy down to the humblest sailor, the country has heard of nothing but honorable conduct, patriotic service, and thorough efficiency. Mr. McKinley as commander-in-chief of all the forces is certainly entitled to praise for the beautiful condition of the navy throughout, even in the same breath in which one may venture to hold him ultimately responsible for a certain

part of what has seemed to be the maladministration of army bureaus.

*An
Investigation
Promised.*

President McKinley has taken the wise and safe course in telling the country that he intends to secure the fullest and most unsparing investigation of all those matters of which there has been complaint. It would be a great mistake to adopt the plan of minimizing the facts and making general excuses. The blunders at Montauk ought not to have followed the blunders of the Santiago campaign. There is not much exaggeration in summing up the whole matter by saying that certain departments of our military administration were for a time in a state little better than chaos. The splendid achievements of the navy and the valor of our soldiers in actual fighting have redeemed the general situation. But the success of the war cannot excuse any failure of the supply services to work efficiently, nor justify the forgiveness of culpable wrong. Our system itself may be fundamentally at fault. It will devolve upon Congress to put the commissary and quartermaster's services in their proper relation to camps and armies. President McKinley has recognized the justice of the almost unanimous demand for an investigation of the army administration by appointing a board of inquiry, to consist of nine men. It is to be hoped that the commission will be able to satisfy the whole country by a manifestly thorough and searching examination into all the facts. In any case, it is likely that Congress next winter will make an inquiry on its own account.



THE PRESENT "ORGANIZATION" OF THE ARMY.
From the *Herald* (New York).

*Politics
and the
War.*

It is becoming tolerably apparent that criticisms upon the army administration will have hurt the Republican party to some extent in the pending campaign. Vermont and Maine, which retain their old-time custom of holding their elections in September instead of November, gave indication last month of a reaction that no merely local causes could explain. Both States, of course, were carried by the Republicans, but not by such majorities as would have been rolled up if the War Department had not been under the ban of popular disapproval. The political situation in the State of New York turns solely upon the prospect as we go to press that Col. Theodore Roosevelt will have received on September 27 the Republican nomination for governor. With Colonel Roosevelt in the field there can be little doubt of the success of the Republican ticket. Theodore Roosevelt's war record is absolutely unique.

He is credited by reason of his hard work as Assistant Secretary of the Navy with no little share in the glory which that arm of our fighting services has attained. In the army, on the other hand, he has gained unstinted praise and admiration for dauntless courage in the hardest kind of fighting, and for the display at every point, in relation to the men under his command and to his superior officers, of the noblest and most sterling qualities.

*The
Vetoed
Parades.*

The mustering out of his regiment of Rough Riders at Montauk was one of the historic events of the war. The whole country is well aware that the particular group of politicians who have been responsible for the scandals that have affected the army have had no love whatever for Colonel Roosevelt, and were determined to prevent his Rough Riders from parading in New York. The people of the metropolis had set their heart upon having the military parade. There was no thought on the part of the citizens of New York of advancing the political interests of Colonel Roosevelt or any



Photo by Pach Bros., New York.

COL. THEODORE ROOSEVELT, OF THE "ROUGH RIDERS."

one else. The War Department, apparently, was determined that the Rough Riders should be mustered out without being seen as an organization by anybody in the United States after their return from Santiago. General Miles had desired to gratify the people of New York by arranging for a parade of at least a part of his returning Porto Rican army. This plan also was prevented by the War Department. It happens, however, that the fame and fortunes of a man like Theodore Roosevelt are not to be affected by the miserable intrigues of political wire-pullers who are jealous of his growing popularity; nor will General Miles, in the end, fail to get exact justice from a highly discriminating public that means to know the truth of his charges against the War Department.

*Mr. Roosevelt's
Political
Status.*

It is precisely because Mr. Roosevelt has shown himself able and willing to serve the country without a thought of his own personal advancement that he can afford to let his popularity take care of itself. He has always been a member of the Republican

party, while never sacrificing his convictions to any doctrine of mere party expediency. So well known is his independence of character that no member of the Republican machine would for a moment think of endeavoring to exact any pledges from him or to impose upon him any conditions whatsoever. If made Governor of New York Mr. Roosevelt will be free to serve the State to the very best of his ability.

*Needed
Army
Reforms.*

It is not for a moment to be supposed that the unfortunate army conditions of which complaint has been made cannot be speedily remedied. Already, under the lash of the press and the force of public opinion, the situation has greatly improved. In round numbers a hundred thousand of our volunteer troops have been mustered out of the service and have gone to their homes. We must, however, for some time to come maintain what for the United States will be considered a large army. All the flood of recent criticism, even though exaggerated at points, will have been

very useful if it leads to such improvements in administration as will bring our army up to something like the standard of the navy. By this time it ought to be possible for the Government to utilize the services of men who know how to lay out camps. It ought to be possible henceforth to give all the troops proper food. There ought to be some system of accounting for the men by which the friends of a sick soldier can trace him to the particular hospital where he has been sent. It ought to be possible to transport commissary supplies without getting everything hopelessly mixed up. It is not simply for the purpose of doing better in case of some future war that we need to take our recent experiences to heart, but rather for application to immediate conditions. We shall have to maintain some troops in Porto Rico, far more in Cuba, and quite possibly still more in the Philippines than in the West Indies. Meanwhile we shall have to maintain at our military posts in this country for reserve purposes much larger bodies of soldiery than we had seen at any time since the Civil War up to the present season. It behooves us by all means, therefore, to probe all abuses and to introduce all new military reforms without delay for current uses.

*Enthusiasm
Over the
Colored
Troops.*

One of the most gratifying incidents of the Spanish war has been the enthusiasm that the colored regiments of the regular army have aroused throughout the whole country. Their fighting at Santiago was magnificent. The negro soldiers showed excellent discipline, the highest qualities of personal bravery, very superior physical endurance, unfailing good temper, and the most generous disposition toward all comrades in arms, whether white or black. Roosevelt's Rough Riders have come back singing the praises of the colored troops. There is not a dissenting voice in the chorus of praise. It has been remarked with frequency and with justice that one of the best results of the war has been the final effacing of all lingering sectional prejudices between the North and the South. General Wheeler, of Confederate fame, comes out of the Cuban campaign one of our most popular national heroes. The South is as proud of Roosevelt as the North is proud of Hobson. It is further to be remarked, however, that the laurels won by the colored troops must also have a profound effect in helping to solve the race question. Men who can fight for their country as did these colored troops ought to have their full share of gratitude and honor. If it should fall to our lot to administer the Philippines, it might well turn out that we could find a large field there in civil as well



THE RETURN OF THE SEVENTY-FIRST NEW YORK REGIMENT.
(Marching through Madison Square, New York City.)
From the Journal (New York).

as military work for young negro Americans of approved qualities. It is at least admitted by every one that the colored troops can stand the Cuban and the Philippine climate much better than our white troops. We may also do well to enlist many recruits from experienced material in Cuba and in the Philippines, where thousands of men who have served under Spanish or insurgent flags would be glad to wear the uniform of Uncle Sam in a territorial military police.

*Evacuation
Plans.*

The evacuation of Porto Rico will probably have been effected in the course of the present month. The American commissioners have found the Spanish members of the Porto Rican evacuation board most sensible and business-like, and the "repatriation" of the Spanish soldiers—to use a word that one finds constantly in the Spanish press these days—will be accomplished just as fast as the necessary shipping facilities can be furnished. The evacuation of Cuba will be a much more difficult and tedious affair. The commissioners at Havana seemed to be making good progress as these lines were written late in September. It is understood that the evacuation will proceed from east to west, and that the last shipload of returning Spaniards will hardly sail from Havana sooner than next February. Just as at Santiago American troops have taken possession where Spanish troops have been sent back to their home country, so at one military post after another, working westward toward Havana, the retiring Spanish forces will be succeeded by those of the United States. The Cuban commissioners have informed their American colleagues that there will be about 100,000 soldiers yet to go back to Spain. The so-called "volunteers" will, almost to a man, remain in Cuba. An appreciable percentage of the Spanish regulars, also, have come to regard Cuba as their home, many of them having families in the island, and it is likely that these will be allowed to stay behind and ultimately to give up their Spanish allegiance. On the other hand, the great Spanish army that will have to be taken home asks the privilege of returning with all its arms and munitions of war. This condition is likely to be conceded by the Americans.

*Conditions
in Cuba.*

It is reported that Gen. Maximo Gomez has resigned his position as commander-in-chief of the Cuban army of liberation. His name will go down in history as that of a military leader of very high order. He knew how to adapt means to ends and understood the value of the element of time. He could not fight open battles, but he could

harass the enemy while Spain's resources were melting away and sickness and destitution were playing havoc with the Spanish soldiers. It was reported during the first half of September that the Spanish troops were dying at the rate of a hundred a day. This would indicate a very widespread state of sickness and enfeeblement. Every year since the war began the rainy season has wrought deadly disaster in the Spanish camps. It was upon such facts that the veteran Gomez had deliberately counted, far more than upon any possibility of winning battles. Now that the American evacuation commissioners have become a present and realized fact in the city of Havana, the long-suppressed Cuban and American sympathies of the people of that city have begun to manifest themselves. There is much reason to think that by the time President McKinley reaches exactly the middle of his four years' term (which will be the first week of next March) there will be very little anti-American feeling discoverable from one end of Cuba to the other. There will be a great deal of very earnest discussion in the island as to the framework of Cuban government; but what the Cubans most earnestly desire will be the restoration of good order and security, with favorable conditions for the profitable resumption of agriculture and commerce. It is announced that 40,000 American troops must be sent to Cuba. They will not be needed. A better policy would be the generous relief of the needy insurgent troops and the enlistment of Cubans in a sort of military constabulary under American officers with a fair nucleus of American regulars. With good management Cuba can almost at once be made safe and law-abiding. Nobody wants any more fighting and nobody will dispute the authority of the United States. Good sense and tact will work wonders.

*Party
Prospects.*

The future of the Democratic party is involved in much uncertainty. The anti-Bryan Democrats are making a strong and determined effort to regain the control that they lost in 1896. On the other hand, the friends of Mr. Bryan and of the Chicago platform are organizing everywhere to hold the party squarely up to the positions taken two years ago. The national chairman of the Populist party, Senator Marion Butler, of North Carolina, has found himself face to face with a formidable revolt on the part of the "middle-of-the-road" Populists—this being the name given to those who are determined henceforth to have nothing to do with fusion tickets or movements. Senator Butler's especial political faculty has seemed to lie in the direction of making fusion bargains. The straight-out Populists held

a convention in Cincinnati early in September, where they denounced Butler and the fusionists, declaring their belief that the gold-standard men were destined to regain control of the machinery of the Democratic party, and took time by the forelock in nominating candidates for President and Vice-President for the election of 1900. The choice was almost equally divided between two candidates—Mr. Wharton Barker, of Phila-



MR. WHARTON BARKER, POPULIST NOMINEE.

adelphia, and Mr. Ignatius Donnelly, of Minnesota. Mr. Barker having gained first place, Mr. Donnelly was chosen by acclamation for the second place on the ticket. Inasmuch as the middle-of-the-road Populists do not believe in the convention system, they will not consider these nominations final until they have been submitted to the action of all the voters of the party under some form of referendum. This popular test will not be made, however, until the committee on organization has worked out a plan of enrollment of party members, so that the simon-pure Populists may not be interfered with in their exercise of choice by the participation of outsiders. The straight-out Populists, while still declaring for free silver coinage, frankly declare that they do not consider that free silver is in any sense the final desideratum. They are in favor of the direct issue of legal-tender paper money by the Government. Mr. Wharton Barker takes his candidacy with entire seriousness, and holds the opinion that the Populists will be

the leading opponents of the Republican party two years hence, the Democratic party having been brought under the control of the element that supported Palmer and Buckner in 1896.

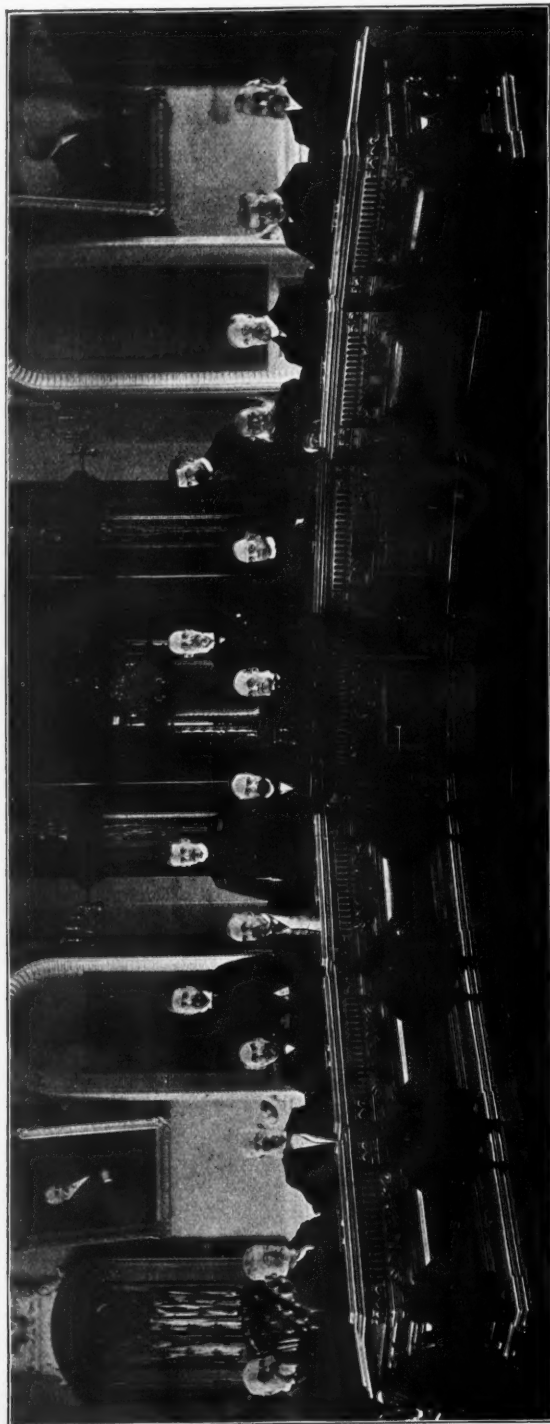
The Closing Month of the Omaha Fair.

The Omaha Exposition is destined during the month of October to attract more attention from the country at large than in its earlier stages. The trans-Mississippi fair found the Spanish war a hard thing to compete with. Curiously enough, the Spaniards, who have been holding an exposition of national industries at Madrid, have seemed to be less entirely diverted from such domestic undertakings during the progress of the war than have our own people. The promised visit of President McKinley to Omaha in the course of the present month will prove a good advertisement for a truly magnificent undertaking. Among the many interesting things to be seen at the Omaha fair, the very first place, in our opinion, must be given to the great ethnological encampment of American Indians. It is hardly likely that one can ever again see so many different Indian tribes thus adequately represented. We publish elsewhere in this number a suggestive account of a ramble through the Indian encampment, with very interesting illustrations. The live-stock exhibit will be an October feature.

The Quebec Conference.

The conference at Quebec began its work under very favorable and promising auspices, and after some days, in which the whole ground was gone over in a general way, an adjournment was taken until September 20. It was considered on both sides, in view of the hopeful nature of the preliminary sittings, that very substantial results would be shown in the completed work of the commissioners. We present herewith a group photograph of the distinguished gentlemen composing the conference, taken expressly for this magazine, and arranged for by Miss Agnes C. Laut, one of Canada's most accomplished journalists. We hope, when the work of the conference is entirely concluded, to present to our readers a review of it from Miss Laut's pen, expressing frankly the Canadian point of view. Meanwhile, Miss Laut sends us the following well-informed note as to what would seem to have been accomplished at the time of the adjournment—her summing up being the ablest and most intelligent statement of the matter that we have seen anywhere:

Never in the history of the United States and the Dominion of Canada was an effort to adjust international difficulties made under more favorable auspices than those attending the Quebec conference. Public opinion in one country no longer manifests hostility toward the other, nor harbors suspicions that



Photographed expressly for the REVIEW OF REVIEWS by Livernois, Quebec.
T. Jefferson Coolidge, John W. Foster, Nelson Dingley, John A. Kasson.

George Gray, Charles W. Fairbanks, Lord Herschell (Chairman), Sir Richard Cartwright, Sir Louis Davies, John Charlton, Sir James Winter.

JOINT HIGH AMERICAN-CANADIAN COMMISSION.

(The four gentlemen standing are secretaries of the commission.)

over-reaching will be attempted in negotiations; and the changed sentiment is reflected in the conciliatory policies adopted by the governments of Washington and Ottawa toward each other.

In Canada a most promising feature of the situation is the ascendancy of that party which is pledged to the establishment of better trade relations with the United States. At the last general elections the issues were clear and well defined; and the Liberals, under the leadership of Sir Wilfrid Laurier, were elected on the platform of tariff for revenue only. Thus the Dominion Government is under no obligations to protectionists for its lease of power, and the Conservatives, through the announcement of their veteran chieftain, Sir Charles Tupper, have promised to refrain from criticism and opposition tactics, which might thwart the ends of the conference. The commercial conditions prevailing in the Dominion are another favorable factor. From Atlantic to Pacific Canada is pulsating with a new prosperity. The period of pioneer hardship and experimental struggle has been passed, and the country is on the verge of an era of unparalleled development and national progress. If ever a good understanding is to be established between the two great branches of the English-speaking race on this continent, no occasion could be more opportune than the present.

Friendly relations between the United States and the Dominion would do far more to bring about a world-wide Anglo-Saxon reunion than formal compact between the American republic and the British empire; but the dazzling possibilities of the Quebec conference can only become realities by the solution of those intricate problems with which the joint commission has been wrestling. Rival interests, concerned in reciprocity, the abolition of pelagic sealing, and other subjects before the conference, have clamored loud for special consideration; but the aim has not been to satisfy importunate demands for privileges, but to effect an adjustment of difficulties by dovetailing agreements and bridging differences with fair compromise. This is a more rational procedure than the old-time jingoism, no-compromise, and hostility.

Whether all the decisions of the commissioners are ratified at Washington and Ottawa or not, the conference will have had important results. The good feeling prevailing at the sessions will be a lasting antidote to that jingoism which has stirred up so much bitterness on both sides. Arbitration has proved better than retaliatory legisla-

tion, and each country has learned what agreements are possible and what divergences must be compromised. Shorn of misrepresentations, so long obscuring the real issues, all the disputes have been simplified and reduced, in nearly every case, to the determination of a single point. The sealing matter resolves itself into an estimate of the proper sum to be paid for Canadian sealers' outfits, and the Atlantic shore quarrel into consideration of granting Nova Scotia fishermen the same privileges on the American market as have been offered to Newfoundland. Though the commissioners may be prevented from solving all the problems before them, they will have shown how each may be solved; and one wonders if the intricate interests between the United States and Canada would not justify the permanent existence of an international tribunal.

It seems peculiarly fitting that a conference having for its aim the establishment of a permanent basis for the commerce and peace of North America, and which may pave the way for a wider reunion of the English-speaking race, should meet in the old fortress on the banks of the St. Lawrence. Quebec has been the scene of two epoch-marking events in new-world history. The conquest of 1759 brought the northern half of America under Anglo-Saxon sway. The Confederation Conference of 1866 welded the isolated possessions of British North America into a homogeneous whole and created the Dominion of Canada. Results affecting the peace and progress of the whole world may follow from the International Conference of 1898. It is, at least, certain to promote friendship between the two most enlightened nations of the age.

It is to be noted that Senator Gray's acceptance of a place on the Paris peace commission made a vacancy in the Quebec conference. It was announced on the 19th that President McKinley had appointed Senator Faulkner, of West Virginia, to fill that vacancy. It was further reported that the conference would probably hold its final sessions at Washington in November.

*Some
Obituary
Notes.*

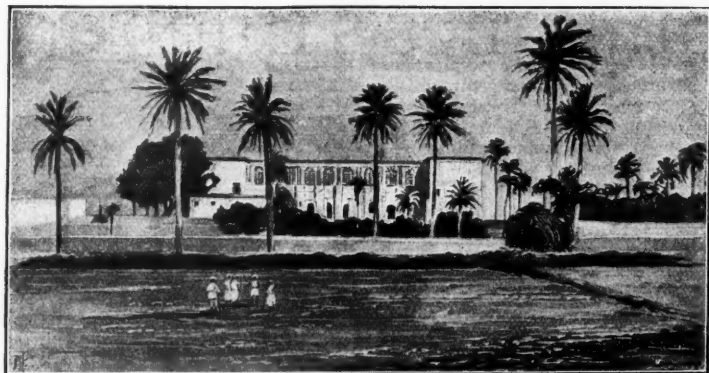
The month's obituary list contains a number of well-known names, though not many from the ranks of those in their most active period of public service. The death of the Empress of Austria, for example, was a matter of wide note solely because of the fact that she was assassinated without reason or provocation. King Malietoa, of the Samoan group, was a personage whose checkered fortunes have interested America and Europe chiefly because of the arrangement under which the United States, England, and Germany exercise a tripartite control over the islands. Sir George Gray, the veteran colonial administrator and entitled to be called the founder of the British South African empire, was eighty-six years of age and had been in retirement since his eightieth year. Count Xiquina, an eminent Spaniard, had been in the Sagasta ministry as it existed

early in the present year, but was not a member of the present cabinet. Judge Thomas A. Cooley, an eminent American jurist, law writer, and student of American history, and first chairman of the Interstate Commerce Commission, had been in a state of completely shattered health for several years. The Rev. Dr. John Hall, a noted minis-



THE LATE MISS WINNIE DAVIS.

ter of New York City, had just reached the age when his complete or partial retirement was considered necessary. Some gallant British officers were killed in the fight at Omdurman, and many soldiers of the United States, some of them bearing well-known names, have in the past month succumbed to fevers. The South, in particular, will mourn the death of Miss Winnie Davis, daughter of the President of the Confederacy, who was also widely known and greatly esteemed throughout the North. The death of the venerable head of the Mormon Church in Utah, Mr. Wilfred Woodruff, brings up a fresh discussion of various matters relating to the Mormon Church and people. His successor is Elder Lorenzo Snow.



GORDON'S PALACE AT KHARTOUM.

(Over the ruins of which the Union Jack and the Egyptian Crescent were raised September 4. A memorial service was held here by the British troops on the following Sunday.)

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From August 21 to September 20, 1898.)

THE UNITED STATES AND SPAIN—ENDING OF THE WAR.

August 21.—Admiral Vallarino, General Ortega, and Señor Sanchez Delaguila are named as commissioners on the part of Spain for the evacuation of Porto Rico.

August 22.—The United States battleships *Iowa* and *Oregon* are sent to the Brooklyn Navy Yard for general repairs.

August 24.—Spanish soldiers from Santiago begin to arrive at Corunna.

August 25.—The troop transports *Rio de Janeiro* and *Pennsylvania* arrive at Manila.

August 28.—The *Olympia* and *Raleigh*, of Admiral Dewey's squadron, leave Manila for Hong Kong to be docked.

August 30.—General Merritt sails from Manila, bound for Paris, to participate in the peace conferences.

August 31.—The transport *Allegheny* arrives at Montauk Point in bad condition, 14 men having died on the way from Santiago; the vessel is described as a cattle-ship, unfit for use as a hospital transport....Orders are issued to release the Spanish prisoners of war held at Annapolis and Seavey's Island.

September 1.—General Shafter takes command of Camp Wikoff at Montauk Point, Long Island.

September 2.—Philippine insurgents invade the southern islands.

September 3.—President McKinley visits and inspects Camp Wikoff.

September 5.—The Spanish Cortes reassembles....The regular troops are ordered from Camp Wikoff.

September 8.—The last of the volunteer regiments leave Camp Wikoff.

September 9.—Senator Gray, of Delaware, accepts an appointment as commissioner on the part of the United States to negotiate peace with Spain; the other American commissioners are William R. Day, Senators Frye, of Maine, and Davis, of Minnesota, and Whitelaw Reid, of New York.

September 10.—President McKinley requests eminent

citizens to serve on a committee to investigate the conduct of the War Department....The Cuban evacuation commissioners arrive in Havana.

September 12.—The American and Spanish evacuation commissioners for Cuba and Porto Rico, respectively, hold sessions.

September 13.—The Spanish Chamber of Deputies adopts the Spanish-American peace protocol....General Shafter submits his report of the Santiago campaign....Admiral Cervera and other Spanish naval officers sail for Spain.

September 14.—The Spanish Cortes is prorogued.

September 15.—President McKinley gives full instructions to the peace commissioners representing the United States.

September 16.—About 70 ships are detached from the North Atlantic squadron.

September 17.—The peace commissioners of the United States sail from New York for Paris.

September 18.—The Spanish Government announces the appointment of Señor Montero Rios, President of the Senate, Señor Abarzuza, Señor Garnica, General Cerero, and Señor Villarrutia as commissioners to negotiate peace with the United States....The Spanish Supreme Council of War suspends Admiral Montojo and Major Sostoa, director of the Cadiz Arsenal.

September 19.—The War Department orders reinforcements sent to General Otis at Manila.

September 20.—The evacuation of Porto Rico by the Spanish troops is begun.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

August 23.—Missouri Republicans adopt a platform indorsing the national administration and favoring territorial expansion.

August 24.—Ohio Democrats reaffirm the Chicago platform of 1896 and favor the renomination of Bryan in 1900....California Republicans nominate Henry Gage for governor and adopt a platform favoring territorial expansion and the Nicaragua Canal....South Dakota Republicans nominate Kirk Phillips for governor and indorse the national administration.

August 25.—Representative J. W. Bailey, of Texas, is unanimously renominated for Congress by the Democrats of his district on an anti-expansion platform.

August 27.—Idaho Democrats and Silver Republicans nominate a fusion ticket, headed by Governor Steunenberg.

September 1.—Wisconsin Democrats nominate Hiram W. Sawyer for governor; the Democrats failing to adopt fusion with Populists, the latter nominate A. A. Woolsey....Iowa Republicans commend the national administration and nominate candidates for minor State offices.

September 5.—In the Arkansas election the vote is light; the Populists fail to elect a representative to either branch of the Legislature.

September 6.—The Republicans carry the Vermont election by reduced pluralities, electing a governor and both members of Congress....The "Middle-of-the-Road" Populists nominate Wharton Barker, of Pennsylvania, for President, and Ignatius Donnelly, of Minnesota, for Vice-President.

September 7.—Iowa Democrats nominate a fusion ticket.

September 8.—Colorado Republicans nominate Simon Guggenheim for governor.

September 9.—Utah Republicans declare for free coinage of silver at 16 to 1....Nevada Democrats reject fusion with the Silver party.

September 10.—Colorado Democrats, Silver Republicans, and Populists name a fusion ticket headed by Charles S. Thomas (Dem.) for governor.

September 12.—In Maine Governor Powers and the four Representatives in Congress, all Republicans, are reelected by a comparatively light vote.

September 13.—New Hampshire Republicans nominate Frank W. Rollins for governor....Delaware Democrats demand a reform of our currency system....Governor Ellerbe leads by a close vote in the South Carolina Democratic primaries.

September 14.—The Navy Department awards contracts for three new battleships.

September 15.—Connecticut Republicans nominate George E. Lounsbury for governor....The "regular" Colorado Republicans nominate Henry R. Wolcott for governor....Nevada Republicans nominate William McMillan for governor.

September 16.—Secretary Day tenders his resignation to President McKinley.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

August 24.—An important conference is held at Vienna between the Austrian and Hungarian premiers on the subject of the *Ausgleich*.

August 31.—Colonel Henry, of the French army, having confessed that he forged a letter in order to secure the conviction of Captain Dreyfus, commits suicide in his prison cell....The congress of Ecuador suspends its sessions and the cabinet resigns.

September 1.—Lieut.-Col. Sir Henry E. MacCallum is appointed Governor of Newfoundland.

September 2.—The British and Egyptian troops under Sir H. Kitchener win a brilliant victory over the Dervishes at Omdurman, near the site of Khartoum; more than 10,000 Dervishes are killed; the British loss is about 200.

September 3.—M. Cavaignac, French Minister of War, who opposes revision of the Dreyfus case, resigns office.

September 4.—The British troops enter Khartoum; the flags of Great Britain and Egypt are raised over the palace....Mme. Dreyfus appeals to the French Government for a revision of the court-martial proceedings in her husband's case.

September 5.—General Zurlinden, Military Governor of Paris, becomes French Minister of War....Queen Wilhelmina accedes to the throne of the Netherlands....The Peruvian Congress sanctions the suspension of the writ of *habeas corpus*.

September 6.—An outbreak of Mohammedans at Candia, Crete, leads to a bombardment of the town by British gunboats.

September 7.—The British battleship *Camperdown* arrives at Candia.

September 8.—Manuel Estrada Cabrera is elected President of Guatemala.

September 10.—The Empress of Austria is assassinated at Genoa by an Italian anarchist named Lucheni.

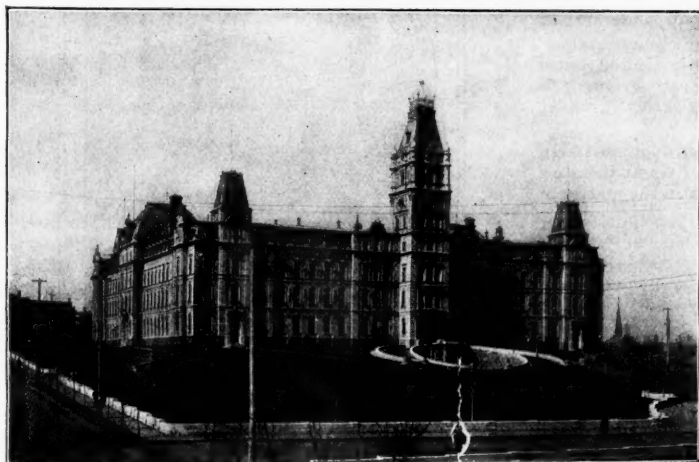
September 15.—Many of the leaders of the riots in Crete are arrested and delivered up to the British admiral at Candia.

September 17.—General Zurlinden, Minister of War, and M. Tillaye, Minister of Public Works in the French Cabinet, resign office and are succeeded by General Chanoine and Senator Godin, respectively.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

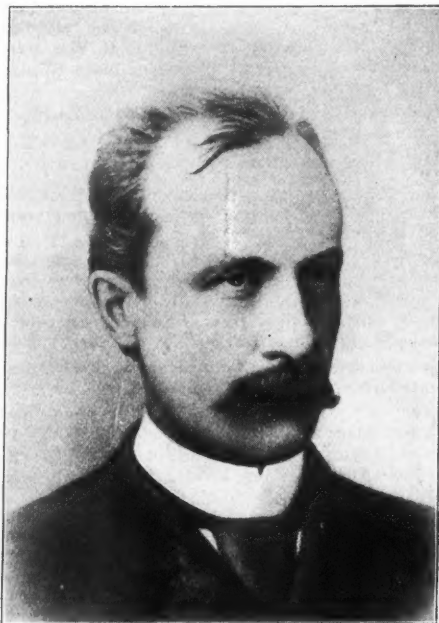
August 23.—The Canadian-American conference meets in Quebec.

August 25.—Sir John Brawnston and Admiral Sir James El-



THE PARLIAMENT HOUSE AT QUEBEC.

(Where the Canadian-American Commission is in session.)



HON. FERDINAND PECK.

(United States Commissioner to the Paris Exposition of 1900.)

phinstone Erskine are appointed commissioners to investigate French treaty rights in Newfoundland.... Commissioners appointed to settle the boundary dispute between Chile and Argentina meet in conference.

August 27.—By order of the Czar, Count Muravieff, Russian Minister of Foreign Affairs, invites an international conference to consider disarmament.

August 28.—The Zionist congress meets at Basle, Switzerland.

September 2.—The Canadian-American conference at Quebec adjourns till September 20.

September 5.—Germany demands of the United States that the same tariff reductions recently granted to France by treaty shall be accorded to Germany, under the "most-favored-nation" clause.

September 7.—Li Hung Chang is again dismissed from office in China, presumably because of Great Britain's complaint of his partiality to Russia in the matter of railroad concessions.

September 9.—The foreign admirals at Candia, Crete, ask the powers to reënforce the international garrisons there.

September 12.—The foreign admirals at Candia request their governments to appoint a governor-general for the island of Crete.

September 13.—Rear Admiral Noel, commanding the British naval forces in Cretan waters, issues an ultimatum to the Turkish military governor of Crete.

September 14.—The Turkish Government refuses to withdraw the troops at Candia in compliance with Great Britain's demand.

September 17.—Admiral Noel demands the disarmament of the Mussalmans in Crete.

September 19.—President McKinley appoints Senator Faulkner, of West Virginia, a member of the Canadian-American commission to succeed Senator Gray, who becomes one of the Spanish-American peace commissioners.

September 20.—The Canadian-American commission resumes its sessions in Quebec.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

August 21.—The premiers of Queensland, New South Wales, and Victoria meet in Sydney to discuss plans for a new Pacific cable.

August 23.—The German arctic expedition of Herr Theodor Lerner returns to Hammerfest, Norway, having found no trace of Andrée.

August 27.—The Czar unveils a monument to Alexander II. at Moscow.... The steamer *Hope* arrives at St. John's, N. F., from her trip to Greenland with Lieutenant Peary's expedition.

August 29.—The British trade-union congress meets at Bristol.

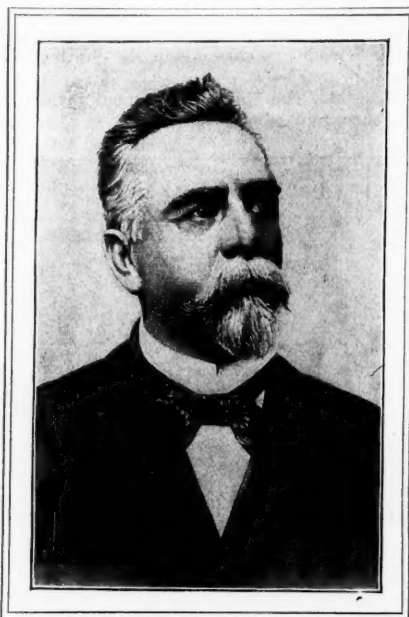
August 30.—Walter Wellman's arctic exploring expedition returns to Tromsø, Norway.

August 31.—The South Wales coal strike is ended by an agreement made at Cardiff.

September 4.—The G. A. R. holds its annual encampment in Cincinnati.

September 6.—By the fall of the two spans of the Ottawa & New York Railway Company's bridge over the St. Lawrence 14 workmen are killed and 17 badly wounded.

September 9.—The Federal Steel Company, with a paid-in capital of \$200,000,000, is incorporated in New Jersey.



DR. D. MANUEL F. CAMPOS SALLES.

(The new President of Brazil.)

September 10.—It is announced that a gift of \$1,500,000 has been made to Cornell University for its new medical school to be established in New York City.

September 11.—The business part of New Westminster, B. C., is destroyed by fire at a loss estimated at between \$2,500,000 and \$3,000,000.... A hurricane in the British West Indies destroys thousands of buildings, rendering 50,000 people homeless and killing 500.

September 12.—A typhoon in central Japan causes the loss of 100 lives.

September 13.—Lorenzo Snow succeeds the late Wilford Woodruff as president of the Mormon Church.

September 15.—A balloon sent up from the Crystal Palace,

Mormon Church, 91.... Rev. Dr. Jesse Ames Spencer, author of religious works, 85.

September 3.—James S. T. Stranahan, Brooklyn's "first citizen," 90.

September 4.—Ex-Gov. Andrew Faulk, of Dakota Territory.

September 8.—Representative Stephen A. Northway, of Ohio, 65.

September 9.—Stephane Mallarme, the well-known French essayist and poet, 56.

September 10.—Empress Elizabeth of Austria-Hungary, 61.

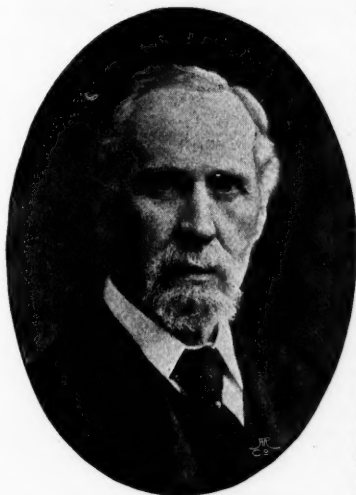
September 12.—Ex-Judge Thomas McIntyre Cooley, of Michigan, the noted authority on constitutional law, 75.... Henry Clay Tompkins, a prominent Alabama lawyer.

September 15.—Dr. Samuel Eliot, former president of Trinity College, 77.... Ex-President J. W. Johnson, of the University of Oregon.

September 16.—Brig.-Gen. Joseph T. Haskell, of Ohio, 60.

September 17.—Rev. Dr. John Hall, of New York City, 69.... Rev. Dr. Thomas Gilmore Appel, theologian of the Reformed Church in America, 69.

September 18.—Miss Varina Anne



THE LATE ARTHUR PEASE, M.P.

London, attains an altitude of 27,500 feet.

September 17.—The funeral of the Empress of Austria takes place in Vienna.

OBITUARY.

August 21.—Count Xiquena, a member of the Sagasta Cabinet which resigned in May last.

August 22.—King Malietoa Lagupepa of Samoa.

August 23.—Ex-Gov. Moody Currier, of New Hampshire.

August 24.—Col. Sir Casimir Stanislaus Gzowski, of Toronto, 86.

August 25.—Ernst Marjet, a well-known California artist, 71.... William H. P. Hains, fleet captain of the Cunard Line of Atlantic steamships, 75.

August 27.—Arthur Pease, member of the British Parliament, 61.

August 28.—Ex-Gov. Claude Matthews, of Indiana, 53.... Dr. Nathan Bouton Warren, musical composer and author, 83.

August 31.—Lieutenant-Colonel Henry, of the French army, 50.

September 2.—Wilford Woodruff, president of the



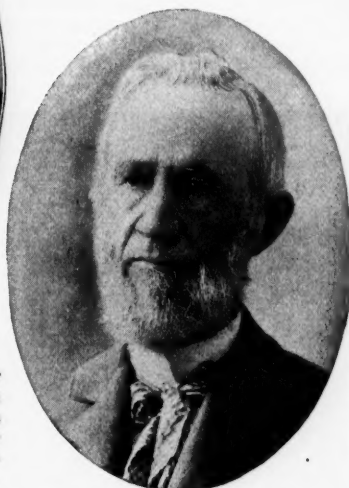
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THE LATE DR. JOHN HALL.

Davis, daughter of Jefferson Davis, known as the "Daughter of the Confederacy," 34.... Maximilianus de Proskowetz, Austro-Hungarian consul-general in Chicago, 47.... Capt. Allyn Capron, First United States Artillery.

September 19.—Sir George Grey, British colonial administrator, 86.... Charles G. Kerr, a leading Baltimore lawyer, 66.

September 21.—Ex-United States Senator William Wallace Eaton, of Connecticut, 82.... Theodor Fontano, German writer and poet, 79.



THE LATE HON. THOMAS M. COOLEY.



Y yo el tercero.

Y yo el segundo.

Soy el Monroe primero.

THE MONROE DOCTRINE PERSONIFIED.—From *Don Quixote* (Madrid).

CURRENT HISTORY IN CARICATURE.

THE cartoons that have been appearing in the Spanish weekly *Don Quixote*, touching various phases of the war and its results, have seemed to us sufficiently novel and striking to be accorded several of our pages this month. We are, therefore, presenting fourteen from recent issues of that popular Madrid paper, which undoubtedly reflects the sentiment of the Spanish people with an unusual degree of fidelity. The drawing at the top of this page, representing progressive stages in the working out of the Monroe doctrine, owes its particular form to a scene in a familiar Spanish opera.

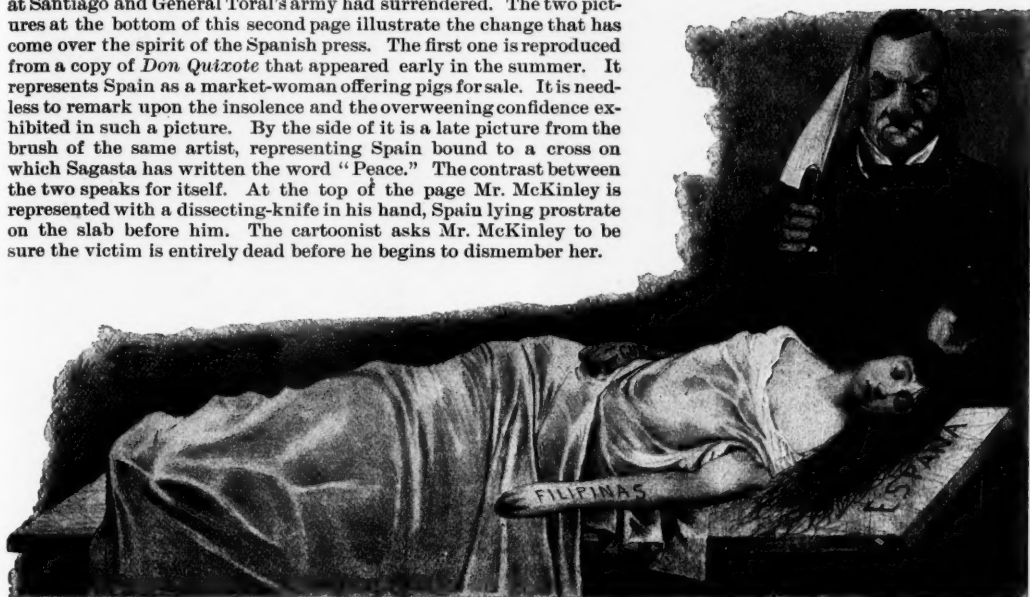
The one at the bottom of the page is reduced from a very large double-page drawing, in which *Don Quixote* gave expression to its feelings on the general situation after the destruction of Cervera's fleet. Most of the heads are those of members of the Spanish cabinet.

The total contempt with which the Spanish press, both in serious articles and in comic pictures, treated the United States in the period just preceding the war, began to disappear after Dewey's victory at Manila; and there was very little left of it when the Spaniards really became aware that Cervera's fleet was destroyed



IT'S EVERY FELLOW FOR HIMSELF NOW!—From *Don Quixote* (Madrid).

at Santiago and General Toral's army had surrendered. The two pictures at the bottom of this second page illustrate the change that has come over the spirit of the Spanish press. The first one is reproduced from a copy of *Don Quirote* that appeared early in the summer. It represents Spain as a market-woman offering pigs for sale. It is needless to remark upon the insolence and the overweening confidence exhibited in such a picture. By the side of it is a late picture from the brush of the same artist, representing Spain bound to a cross on which Sagasta has written the word "Peace." The contrast between the two speaks for itself. At the top of the page Mr. McKinley is represented with a dissecting-knife in his hand, Spain lying prostrate on the slab before him. The cartoonist asks Mr. McKinley to be sure the victim is entirely dead before he begins to dismember her.



BE CAREFUL, M'KINLEY—SHE MAY NOT BE DEAD!
From *Don Quirote* (Madrid).



"PIGS! PIGS! CHEAP TO-DAY!"
From *Don Quirote* (Madrid).



INSTEAD OF INRI HE SUBSTITUTES PAZ.
From *Don Quirote* (Madrid).



SAGASTA IN AN ATTITUDE THAT EXPLAINS ITSELF.
From *Don Quirote*.

The close censorship of the press in Spain has not seemed to extend to the point of forbidding caricatures of the prime minister to be published. Week after week *Don Quirote* has made its protest against the censorship by printing a female figure, representing the press, stabbed through the heart with the big lead-pencil of the censor's office. Nevertheless, on the very same page *Don Quirote* has continued to pay its *disrespects* to Sagasta. The Spanish cartoonists represent their na-



SAGASTA OFFERS THE MANTILLA OF PEACE TO SPAIN.
From *Don Quirote*.

tion sometimes by a female figure and sometimes in the form of a country bumpkin. This remark has its bearing upon two cartoons on this page.



SAGASTA AS THE NATION'S BARBER.
(Apropos of the loss of territory.)
From *Don Quirote*.



MARINE MINISTER AUNON GOES TO SEA IN A PAPER BOAT,
WHICH IS ALL THE NAVY WE SPANIARDS HAVE LEFT.
From *Don Quirote*.



McKINLEY TO CUBA: "There! Take your independence!
From *Don Quixote*.



M'KINLEY AS A LITERARY MAN.
From *Don Quixote*.

On this page we have presented five cartoons from *Don Quixote* representing Mr. McKinley in various capacities. In one he is the successful fisherman; in another the landlord who holds the keys to the Hotel of Peace, which Sagasta would fain enter; the third is intended to show the manner in which Spain would be pleased to obey the injunction, "Love your enemies;"

another shows McKinley dictating the terms of the peace protocol, while a fifth represents him as kicking the Cubans out of Cuba.



M'KINLEY THE FISHERMAN.
From *Don Quixote*.



SAGASTA APPLYING TO LANDLORD M'KINLEY FOR LODGING IN THE HOTEL OF PEACE.—From *Don Quixote*.



FORGIVING ONE'S ENEMY AS SPAIN WOULD LIKE TO PRACTICE THAT VIRTUE.—*Don Quixote* (Madrid).



While it is true that *Kladderadatsch* by no means represents the sentiment of the whole of Germany, it must be observed, none the less, that it stands for the views of a very powerful element, and it is well worth while that Americans should make a note of the three cartoons on this page, all of them from recent issues of

that strongly anti-American paper. The top one gives a glimpse into the twentieth century, and shows the European concert making music to entertain Uncle Sam as he feasts off the whole earth, with John Bull as a lackey at his back. At the bottom of the page are two of *Stutz*' exceedingly able attacks upon Uncle Sam.



UNCLE SAM WANTS TO BUY A COALING AND NAVAL STATION IN MOROCCO.
From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin).



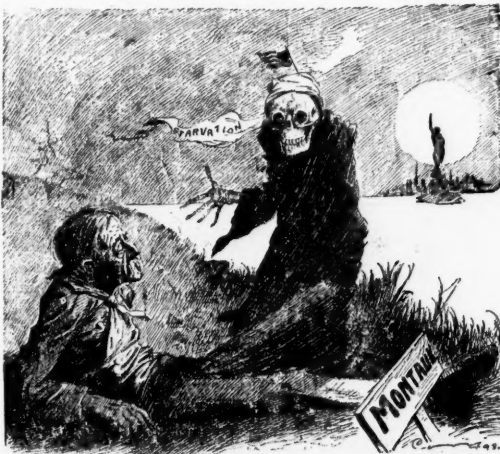
UNCLE SAM PLAYS THE FLUTE IN THESE NEW PIPING TIMES OF PEACE, WHILE HIS SHEEP ENJOY THE FRESH PASTURES HE HAS GAINED.—From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin).



SECRETARY OF WAR ALGER: "What are you all looking at me for? They ain't my chickens."

From the *Tribune* (Minneapolis).

On this page and the one following we have collected a few of the current American cartoons, reflecting, for the most part, the widespread criticisms of the army administration. Our reproduction of them does not necessarily imply indorsement. But they must go on record as thoroughly illustrative of the tone and character of the month's discussion in the United States.



STARVING VOLUNTEER: "Wherein is my condition better than that of the Cuban *reconcentrado* whom I tried to save from you?"

GENIUS OF THE CAMP: "Why you are in the glorious United States, under the protection of Uncle Sam and Mr. Alger. Fie! Aren't you satisfied?"



THE HORRORS OF PEACE.

Shall this monument be erected to political incompetence and corruption?—From the *Journal* (New York).



AND THE FALL ELECTIONS ARE COMING ON!



ALGER'S INVESTIGATION.

ALGER: "I have looked into the War Department and find that it is all right."—From the *Tribune* (Minneapolis).

If the enemies of Mr. Alger are deliberate enough in their hostility to "scrap-book" things reflecting upon that gentleman's character and record, they have had a great opportunity in the past month. One might fill several volumes with the anti-Alger newspaper cartoons that have appeared. It must be said for the Secretary that he seems to bear it well. We have refrained from selecting the worst. The three cartoons in the second column of this page deal with phases of the pending Republican campaign.



ALGER FINDS A FRIEND IN NEED.

HANNA: "The man that attacks Alger attacks me. See?"
From the *Journal* (New York).



McKINLEY: "Better hurry that job, Alger."
From the *Herald* (New York).



AND FORTY MORE ARE COMING IN NOVEMBER.
From the *Journal* (New York).



THE REAL BRONCO BUSTER.

Teddy Roosevelt seems to stick pretty tight to his political mount.—From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



THE WHOLE THING.

UNCLE SAM (to the powers, who are watching him with great interest): "There ain't goin' to be no core."

From the Times (Los Angeles).

The Philippines question is presented on this page from four very different points of view. One is German, one is Spanish, one represents the dubious New York state of mind, and the fourth represents the sanguine and very determined attitude of the American West.



WHAT WILL HE DO WITH IT?

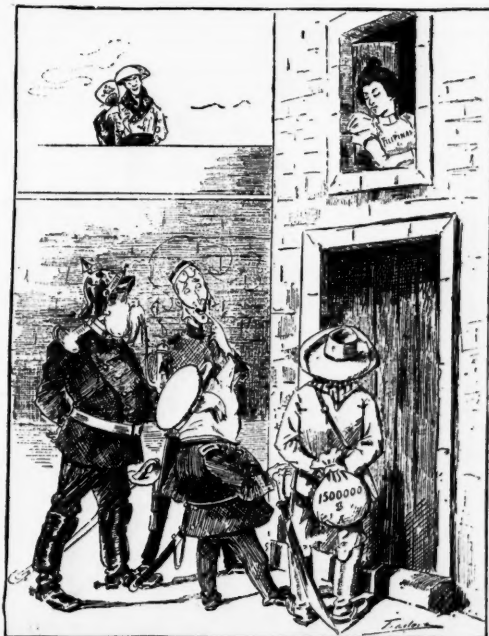
From the Herald (New York).



HASTE WITH CARE.

Uncle Sam, as a smart business man, begins to trade his Philippine doves to the highest bidder.

From Kladderadatsch.



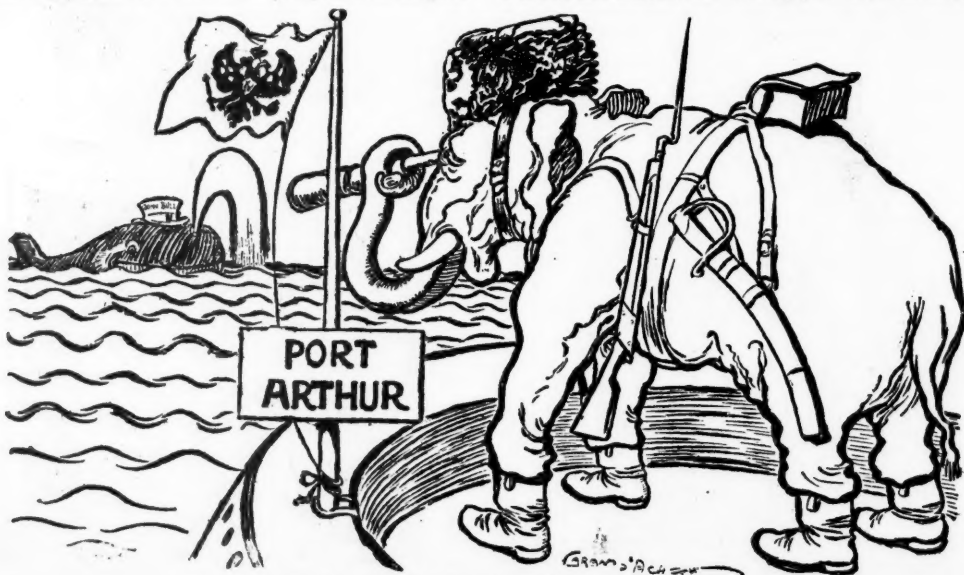
FILIPINA'S SUITORS.



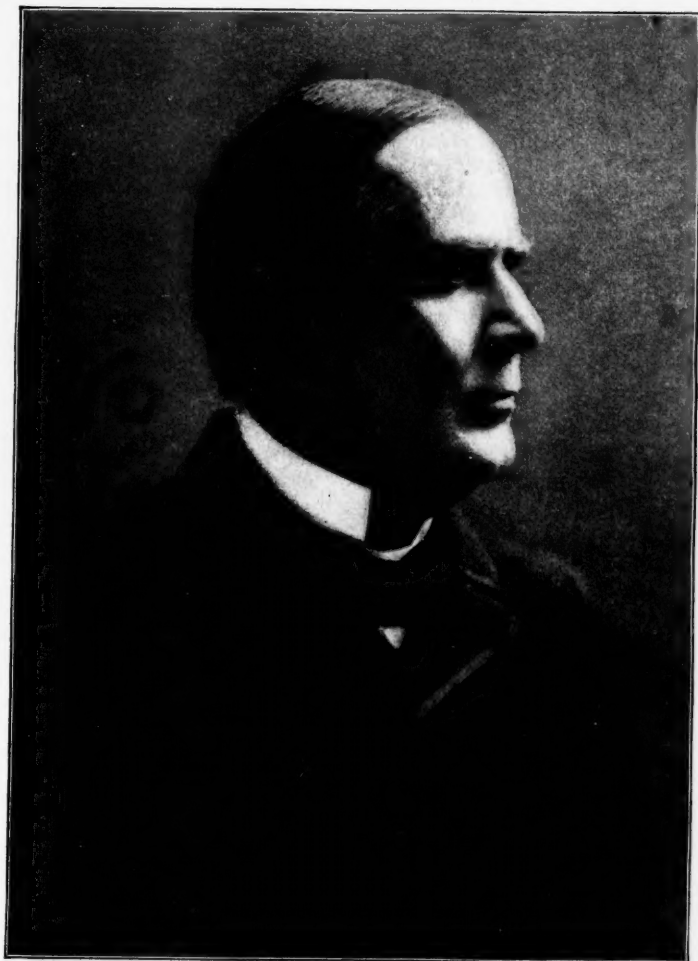
THE ROYAL MUZZLE—TWISTING THE LION'S TAIL.—From *Fair Game* (London).

There was great excitement in England a few weeks ago over the threatening aspect of various foreign complications, particularly the manner in which England seemed to have been outwitted by Russia in obtaining Chinese advantages. It was said by the press, notably by the *London Times*, that England was handicapped through the Queen's determination that England should not engage in war with any European power during her lifetime. This discussion provided Mr. Harry Furness with the theme of the striking cartoon at the top of the present page. In the tail-twisting cartoons of other days Uncle Sam was usually depicted as the prin-

cipal twister. He is conspicuous for his absence from this cartoon by Mr. Furness. At the bottom of the page the famous French caricaturist, Caran d'Ache, gives us the situation at Port Arthur as it seemed to be a little earlier in the season. The Russian elephant is supreme on land, while the British whale spouts majestically in mastery of the sea. Since Caran d'Ache drew this picture, however, England and Russia would seem to have come to the wise conclusion that there is plenty for each to do in his respective sphere and no sound reason for quarreling. These two draughtsmen, Furness and d'Ache, are strikingly different in method.



THE WHALE AND THE ELEPHANT.—From *Figaro* (Paris).



From a new photo by Bell.

PRESIDENT M'KINLEY.

THE MAN AT THE HELM.

BY GEN. A. B. NETTLETON.

WITH the close of September, 1898, President McKinley has covered little more than the first third of the term for which he was chosen. Usually it would be both unfair and unhelpful to pass in hasty review the official course of a President at a period in his administration when most Presidents have only become fairly settled in the saddle, with vision somewhat adjusted to the new and vast perspective. But in more ways than one the present time and situation are exceptional. Lines of history, of world-embracing importance, are seeming to con-

verge upon the closing quadrennium of the nineteenth century and upon the American republic as the leading actor in a new and stately drama. Not only have affairs of the first magnitude already fallen to the management of President McKinley and his responsible associates, but the horizon bristles with novel, difficult, and far-reaching problems with which his administration will immediately and continuously have to deal, and the solution of which calls for the highest qualities of manhood and statesmanship. Perhaps it is neither untimely nor presumptuous,

even in the midst of the whirl of events, to take a cursory glance at the expanding epoch and the man at the helm, equally avoiding pessimistic or microscopic criticism on the one hand and indiscriminating eulogy on the other. It will not be aside from the general purpose if this sketch shall partially answer the question, How has William McKinley responded to a great opportunity?

ELECTION AND ADJUSTMENT.

Major McKinley came to his nomination for the Presidency in June, 1896, with a solid and desirable reputation as a typical American public man with a habit of success, whose political career, if not brilliant, had been singularly free from serious errors, and who, by much fruitful experience in constructive legislation, had earned and held the leadership of his party in its relation to that hitherto central issue, the tariff. Judicious friends and fair opponents considered him a strong candidate, and expected him, if elected, to reach a good average of efficiency and success in his great office—but still an average. The logic of the situation and the mandate of the nominating conventions enabled and required the Republican candidate to stand primarily for a restoration of a reasonable protective policy and a sane and safe treatment of the currency problem, equally removed from the two extremes which had been evolved in the long battle of the standards. If the man or the themes had led any to expect a tame canvass with mediocre utterances from Canton, a sharp surprise was in store for them. Mr. McKinley's series of daily addresses delivered to visiting delegations from many and distant sections of the land and representing widely various elements and interests was a revelation. These speeches manifested a power of sustained discourse, a versatility of information, a readiness of adaptation and of sagacious yet sincere appeal, a skill in marshaling facts, and, withal, a freedom from indiscretions and from partisan clap-trap which instantly commanded the attention of the country. Equally exempt from superficiality and from all suggestion of the lamp and the encyclopedia, they hit the bull's-eye of the public interest and made it plain that Mr. McKinley was at least not an average candidate. Mr. Blaine and General Harrison had previously in this respect set a pace not easy to follow, but the unpretentious Ohio citizen quickly proved himself the equal of these past masters of felicitous and convincing speech. This episode of a remarkable campaign gave promise, but not assurance, that as Mr. McKinley had notably risen to the level of his fine opportunity as a candidate, he might with still

greater distinction respond to the larger demands of the world's greatest elective office.

During the months of waiting which fortunately or unfortunately intervene with us before a newly chosen administration assumes the reins of power, some abatement of enthusiasm naturally replaced the recent campaign fervor. Sinister critics who still insisted that Mr. McKinley would prove weak in executive faculty and pliable where he should be firm busied themselves with surmising what particular bosses or groups of unworthy politicians would probably control patronage and policies during the next four years. Certain of the principal appointments early announced by the President distinctly failed to meet the approval of his most discerning friends—appointments which subsequent experience proved to have been thoroughly ill-advised. There was a moment of doubt as to the degree of wisdom, independence, and strength which the new administration would develop—of uncertainty whether the high promise of the candidate was to be realized in the performance of the official. Mr. McKinley immediately succeeded in office one who was a President without a party. He was perhaps unduly impressed with the forlornness of the spectacle and at first unconsciously inclined to carry to excess his anxiety to hold solidly at his back, through its recognized leaders, that superb political organization which had swept the country and now presumably held his administration and his own future in its keeping.

This period of adjustment to a novel situation—this process of reaching solid ground through some initial experiments and resulting errors—was soon passed. The President quickly learned the lesson that even from the point of view of "good politics" his own judgments and unspoiled intuitions were wiser and safer than the interested counsels of political promoters. Under the wholesome compulsion of circumstance he laid aside that which threatened to be his bane, an excess of political amiability. Thenceforth there was no uncertainty. Past mistakes were put to their legitimate use of avoiding future ones, although even this recovery could not prevent some threads of weakness running through the strong web of his coming service. The country retained its confidence that it had not blundered in choosing a pilot for the rough weather that loomed just ahead, and no one has had occasion to ask, Who is at the helm of affairs in Washington?

THE TARIFF AND INTERNATIONAL BIMETALLISM— HAWAII.

Following his inauguration the President promptly entered upon his part of the task of executing the pledges embodied in the platform



Lieut.-Col. B. F. Montgomery. (In charge of executive telegraph.)
 Brig.-Gen. H. C. Corbin. (Adjutant-General.)
 A. A. Ade. (Second Assistant Secretary of State.)
 George B. Cortelyou. (Assistant Secretary to the President.)
 Charles M. Loeffler. (Doorkeeper of the cabinet room.)
 M. Thibaut. (Secretary of French legation.)
 William E. Day. (Secretary of State.)
 John B. Moore. (First Assistant Secretary of State.)
 O. L. Pruden. (Assistant Secretary to the President.)
 M. Jules Cambon. (French ambassador and representative of Spain.)
 Thomas W. Cridler. (Third Assistant Secretary of State.)

THE SIGNING OF THE PEACE PROTOCOL AT WASHINGTON.

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on which, with a Republican House of Representatives, he had been elected by so pronounced a majority. Summoning the new Congress in extraordinary session, he urged the enactment of a tariff measure which should at the same time end the scandal of an annual deficit in time of peace and embody the principle of a reasonable preference for American industries in American markets. With a Senate dominated by no party and anti-Republican on several test questions, the achievement of such legislation was from the outset difficult and success doubtful. Without meddling, without arrogance, but with admirable tact, persistency, and good sense, the President used the legitimate prerogative of his office and the influence of his own courteous but forceful personality to supplement the efforts of the friends of tariff revision in the reluctant and conglomerate Senate, and the bill became a law. Born thus of a mixed parentage, the measure was not ideal legislation from the point of view of any school of economists, but its operation has proved at least its capacity to produce sufficient revenue for the country on a peace footing, and its protective features provided helpful conditions for a needed return of industrial and commercial

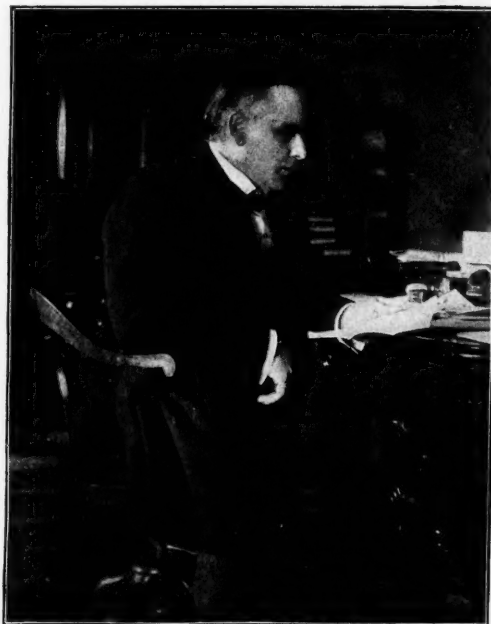
prosperity. Both in his campaign addresses and in his attitude pending tariff legislation, without the slightest disloyalty to the central idea of protection, Mr. McKinley manifested his recognition of the fact that through industrial evolution this country is in a stage of healthful transition toward wider markets and broader theories of exchange.

Upon the prompt initiation of tariff legislation the President, with equal forthrightness and in quiet defiance of a unanimous and rather contemptuous Wall Street, took his next step in obeying the instructions given him by the people at the polls. The national Republican platform of 1896 contained this declaration: "We are therefore opposed to the free coinage of silver except by international agreement with the leading commercial nations of the world, which we pledge ourselves to promote, and until such agreement can be obtained the existing gold standard must be preserved."

Fifty-one and one-fifth per cent. of the voters ratified this utterance with their ballots, while 46½ per cent. supported a platform and candidate committed to the immediate free coinage of gold and silver at the traditional ratio. Here,

for better or for worse, was a practically unanimous declaration by seventy millions of people in favor of the doctrine of bimetallism. Parties divided over a subordinate question. The Democrats held that the United States, acting alone, could and should restore and maintain the joint standard; the Republicans, while they declared for the joint standard, contended that the problem was one of world-wide scope, like the tides of the ocean, and that without the coöperation of several of the great nations of Europe an attempt by the United States fully to remonetize silver could only result, under then existing conditions, in practical silver monometallism for this nation, with all that this implied. As between the two views the verdict of the election indorsed international bimetallism and instructed the new administration to promote that result. Meantime the existing status of substantial gold monometallism was to be maintained until the way which was declared to be better could be safely opened. This remarkable pronouncement of the people was not seriously affected by the fact that throughout the canvass not a few persons and presses opposed or ignored both party platforms and insisted that the single gold standard was the ideal one and ought to be made permanent. No candidate standing on such a declaration could then have come near election.

With equal sincerity and foresight President McKinley saw, and wished to see, no other path than to carry out the policy formulated by his party and approved by the country, a policy which commended itself to his own judgment and was in accord with his own antecedents. He spurned the covert suggestion, which came from many influential quarters, that the language of the Republican platform in approval of international bimetallism was a dishonest bid for the votes of conservative bimetallists in all parties, and having served its purpose was intended to be forgotten after election. The commission appointed by him to sound the leading governments of Europe fairly represented both political parties, the principal sections of the country, and the several shades of opinion favorable to the joint standard. Its errand was, first, to learn authentically what would be the attitude of the governing elements in France, Great Britain, and Germany toward a movement to establish by international coöperation a practical and permanent system of bimetallic coinage, and, second, to promote such a movement in all proper ways in the name and on behalf of the Government of the United States. The work of the commission was done with fidelity and ability, and developed the fact that outside of France the coöperation of Europe in favor of bimetallism could not be



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THE PRESIDENT AT HIS DESK—A NEW PHOTOGRAPH.

counted on for the present or the early future. Whether that result shall prove to be a temporary repulse or a final defeat for the cause of bimetallism, the mission to Europe of Senator Wolcott and his associates was abundantly justified by the event. In the presence of claims exactly opposite and equally positive the people of the United States needed and demanded conclusive information as to the attitude of Europe on the great monetary question of the hour. That attitude, when definitely ascertained, was sure to influence largely the opinions of men, the alignment of parties, and the course of political events in America. The work of the commission, far from being futile, constituted a necessary and thorough reconnaissance which clarified the situation, removed from the monetary debate in the United States its main element of uncertainty and confusion, and enabled our people, while solving in their own way a grave and exigent problem, to move in view of all the facts. A greater, more timely, or more courageous service, undertaken in the teeth of powerful opposition coming largely from interests which had earnestly aided Republican success, could hardly have been rendered by a President to the cause of sound finance and the general prosperity.

It was in harmony with the predominant sentiment of the nation, largely regardless of party

lines, that President McKinley, at the threshold of his term, committed his administration aggressively to the policy of Hawaiian annexation—a policy which President Harrison had sturdily advocated and which President Cleveland, attempting to defeat, had only succeeded in delaying for four years. The final failure of the treaty by two or three votes to command the necessary two-thirds majority of the Senate only served to elicit the real purpose of the people. The law-making power proceeded to accomplish what the treaty making power failed to effect, and the flag of the United States floats in final sovereignty over the Hawaiian Islands. In forwarding this measure, as in promoting the tariff enactment, the President furnished a needed demonstration that the executive may exert a great and sometimes determining influence upon the course of important legislation without in the slightest degree infringing the prerogative or affronting the self-respect of the Congress.

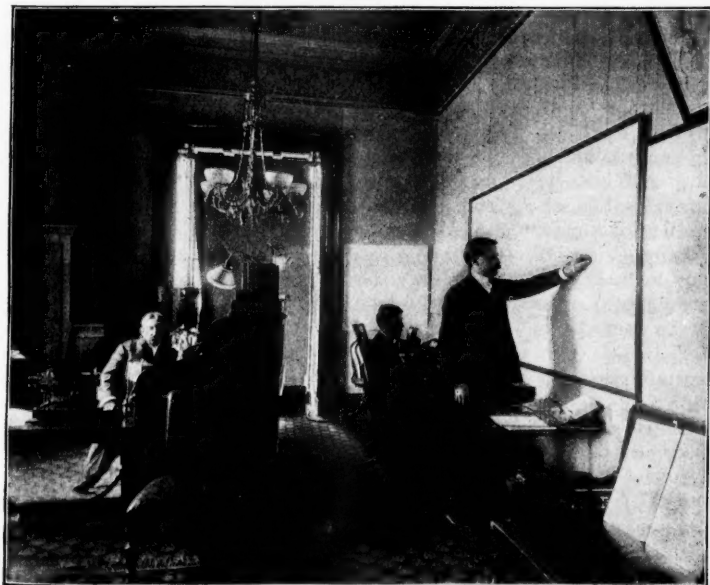
None can fail to see that this notable debate, with its historic setting and the resulting action, marked a momentous new departure for the nation and paved the way for still greater and swiftly coming developments. The President was not slow to perceive that while originally Hawaiian annexation had little significance beyond the economic and strategic considerations of limited range which it involved as an isolated act, by the summer of 1898, in the midst of a foreign war, it had become an essential link in a

chain of events of world-wide scope and enduring magnitude. Viewed thus, the measure was urged by the President and those who agreed with him with a vigor which assured success. Whatever the twentieth century shall say as to the wisdom or unwisdom of extending the dominion of the great republic distinctly beyond the boundaries and waters of the North American continent, that policy itself will through all time be identified in its effective origin with the McKinley administration.

THE RISING WAR CLOUD.

In receiving from his predecessor—indeed from a considerable line of predecessors—the uncomfortable legacy of the Cuban question, President McKinley recognized that its cumulative evils would reach a climax in the early months of his own administration, and that even if he would he could not pass on the mischievous portfolio to his successor. It was evident that the disease had reached a stage which would brook no treatment short of radical cure. A remedy, not a palliative, was imperiously demanded. The President lent himself to this conclusion and its logical consequence with unreluctant courage. To him as to the nation it was not simply the fact that a brave people at our doors were being exterminated because they would no longer submit to outrage. There was the broader and deeper fact that Spain had increasingly shown her innate and racial unfitness and incapacity to administer the affairs of a colony, and now was attempting to maintain within thirty leagues of our coast a section of fourteenth-century civilization alongside that of the nineteenth. It was another irrepressible conflict between the old and the new, between darkness and light, and current events only served to precipitate a catastrophe which in any case was inevitable. It was simply the arrival of the day of judgment for Spanish colonial methods, with the United States as the providential instrument for executing the sentence.

The end to be reached—the prompt and complete termination of Spanish rule in Cuba—having been determined by unbroken consensus, the primary question be-



THE WAR ROOM AT THE WHITE HOUSE.

came one of method. At the outset the President and his Cabinet believed the desired result could be accomplished without involving the nation in war. Even if there was but a reasonable chance of success through peaceful means, he believed this course should first be tried, since such trial, with failure, would not weaken, but would greatly strengthen our cause if subsequent events should show that forcible measures were necessary. The President, possessing full information, including much that could not currently be given to the public, was convinced that if allowed a little time and a free hand he could secure the independence of Cuba by diplomatic pressure upon Spain—that pressure being always potentially backed by the prestige and the purpose, the fleets and the armies of the United States. Very powerful influences abroad were working to this end, but out of the public sight. The necessary evils attending any war, the certainty of a long death-roll from battle and disease, and the easy possibility that our then impending struggle with Spain might prove the match to ignite the magazine of Europe and sweep our nation into the vortex of a general war—considerations like these bore upon the President as they could bear upon no one else. It was considerations like these, and not the solemn appeals of organized commercialism, that made him reluctant to draw the sword so long as another solution seemed possible.

In 1861, prior to the attack on Sumter, Lincoln seemed to hesitate. In the early months of 1898 the charge of hesitancy and indecision was raised against McKinley, mainly by the professional Hotspurs and the uninformed. In each instance it was the pause of a sincere soul before entering upon a vast responsibility which none else could measure and which no mortal could share. Each in his time and place stood alone and reckoned only with his Maker, his conscience and history. In great crises a sense of solemn individual accountability abides with a conscientious chief magistrate which is impossible to any legislative body, especially one of numerous membership. Congresses come and Congresses go, and after each expires it is known only by its consecutive number on the public-document shelves—a reminiscence without tangible or continuing responsibility. The executive is a personal and enduring entity, amenable by name to the rewards and punishments of history. Posterity can deal retributively with the fame of a former President. Posterity might as well attempt to call to account a last year's sunset as to arraign a departed Congress.

But whatever might have resulted from a further test of peaceful means with Spain, had

conditions temporarily remained unchanged, the ethics of events suddenly ordained that diplomacy should not untie, but the sword should cut, the Cuban knot. The unspeakable tragedy of the *Maine*, however direct or remote may have been Spanish responsibility, followed by Senator Proctor's calm but overwhelming *exposé* concerning the *reconcentrados*, threw a sinister light on other facts of current history, stirred the blood of our people as it had not been stirred in a generation, and closed every avenue but one.

ANTE-BELLUM STATESMANSHIP.

After war became inevitable and before hostilities should open there was necessity for widespread preparation by the United States. Spain was already on a war footing so far as she could ever be, while aside from our navy we were in the sleep of peace and utterly unready for either attack or defense. Doubtless the power of Spain, especially for an early offensive dash, was everywhere overestimated; but this is after-thought and could not have influenced plans at the outset. With nearly two hundred thousand well-equipped soldiers in Cuba and Porto Rico alone and a navy which some good authorities then regarded as fairly equal to our own, Spain was far from contemptible in fighting strength and preparedness, and not a few among our best friends predicted that in the early stages of the contest we should have the worst of it.

At this juncture the administration, while keeping in touch with the best and dominant sentiment of the country, had the complex, instant, and difficult task—

1. Of averting serious division at home;
2. Of making colossal preparation for a war of unknown magnitude, including the creation, equipment, and transportation of an army of a quarter of a million men;
3. Of preventing threatened European interference, both by making the American cause ethically and diplomatically impregnable and by convincing Europe that in case of such interference we should not stand alone;
4. Of postponing an open breach with Spain until our country could be put in a decent state of readiness for the actual shock of war; and
5. Of so guiding events in Congress and elsewhere that by premature recognition of the shadowy insurgent government in Cuba we might not shortly find ourselves in a hopeless and perhaps hostile muddle of complications with the very people whom we were arming to succor.

Illustrative of the magnitude and sweep of some of these preparatory measures, it is only now with the dawn of peace that the eyes of our own people are opening to the real significance of



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The President.

Lyman J. Gage.
(Secretary of the Treasury.)

J. W. Griggs.
(Attorney-General.)

John D. Long.
(Secretary of the Navy.)

James Wilson.
(Secretary of Agriculture.)

William R. Day.
(Secretary of State.)

C. N. Bliss.
(Secretary of the Interior.)

Russell A. Alger.
(Secretary of War.)

Chas. Emory Smith.
(Postmaster-General.)

THE PRESIDENT AND HIS WAR CABINET.

that Anglo-American understanding which was a first-fruit of our ante-bellum diplomacy. British good-will and its effective and timely manifestation were not the fortuitous circumstances, the lucky coincidences, which half the public thought them to be, and they undoubtedly saved the United States from the ugly necessity of facing the hostile fleets of at least two European nations besides Spain. This unwritten treaty of amity and mutual helpfulness is full of meaning to the family of nations, having the potentiality of a practical alliance of all English-speaking communities in the interest of universal order, equity, and civilization.

To answer the question in what manner this momentous and perplexing emergency was met and these great duties performed would be to summarize one of the most memorable and creditable chapters in American history. It is sufficient to say of the President's action in this turning of a serious crisis that no one, even after the event and in the relentless light of results, has named an important particular in which the soundest wisdom would have suggested a different course. Perhaps no contemporary estimate at once more competent and more disinterested has been given than that of the *London Times*

when it said that, amid the events and exigencies leading up to and growing out of our war with Spain, President McKinley has manifested the highest measure of statesmanship possible to a chief magistrate acting within the lines of the American Constitution.

THE PRESIDENT AND THE WAR'S MANAGEMENT.

If Mr. McKinley rose to a great occasion in the events prelude hostilities, did he fail to keep good his record in the presence of actual war? From the hour when, through the stubborn folly of Spain, diplomacy had spoken its last word, the President not only ceased to be the advocate of peace, but became the very embodiment of the intelligent and resistless war spirit of the nation. Thenceforward no one complained of a Fabian policy. As he had exhausted all honorable measures for averting bloodshed, even at the cost of criticism and misrepresentation, so now he concentrated every energy of his nature and all the well-nigh autocratic war powers of the executive upon the one task of making the conflict swiftly and humanely decisive. And here came the greatest of many surprises. Too young to have reached high rank or great responsibility during his service in the

Civil War, the President was not known to have given much attention to military affairs during his mature life. Many, perhaps most, when hostilities opened, expected to see him virtually stand aside as a civilian and relegate the strategy of the war, the planning and carrying out of campaigns, to the trained experts about him. If this was his own predisposition it was quickly displaced by two discoveries: first, that a generation of peace had failed to develop any one military officer of abilities so conspicuous and character so balanced as to entitle him to unquestioned leadership such as that, for example, which Grant exercised during the closing years of the war for the Union; second, that the diversity of view among equally competent expert advisers largely discounted the value of their counsel and compelled a resort by the President to the unwritten maxim of Grant: In emergencies consult your corps commanders, then do as you think best. Thus from the first, and that without vanity or presumption, President McKinley found himself exercising in fact the authority vested in him by the Constitution as commander-in-chief of the army and navy. Availing himself of the best talent in both branches of the service, with rare sagacity or good fortune putting the right commander in the right place, careful not to violate the canons of the military art, he formulated a plan of campaign, definite and positive in its main outlines, flexible in regard to such details and contingencies as no one could foresee or control. Admirals and army commanders acted within the lines of this general plan of the war and executed with magnificent energy and thoroughness the orders emanating from the White House, but transmitted through the regular channels of subordinate authority.

At the very outbreak of hostilities came a striking illustration of what has here been said. It is a fact not commonly known that the first dispatch which was cabled to Commodore Dewey within twenty-four hours after the declaration of war, ordering him to sail forthwith for Manila and capture or destroy the Spanish fleet in Philippine waters—an order which resulted in the greatest naval victory in history, decided the struggle in the eastern hemisphere, and changed the future of ten millions of people—was dictated by the President and sent by his direction against the advice of the entire Cabinet save one member. In the campaign of Santiago, which finally crushed the sea-power of Spain and humanely ended the war in thirty days, it was the President's energetic intervention which overcame the strange inertia and confusion that threatened to delay the departure of the expedi-

tionary force until the golden opportunity had passed. On the other hand, he had already vetoed a summer campaign against Havana by land and sea, with its needless carnage and its certain disaster from climate and disease.

But no President or chief was ever more fortunate in the competency and valor of the naval and military officers, the soldiers and sailors, on whom he depended to fight the battles and win the triumphs of a war, and none could have been more generously swift in according to his responsible subordinates the credit and glory of the marvelous procession of victories which have commanded the admiration and changed the judgment of the world. To Dewey and Merritt at Manila, to Shafter, Sampson, and Schley at Santiago, to Miles in Porto Rico, to Watson with his sleepless blockading fleet, and to their officers and men, the President transmits the thanks and tribute of a grateful nation, but he leaves it for others to remind us that this matchless campaign of little more than the historic hundred days, yet having well-nigh half the globe for its theater, was planned, unified, and energized from a modest conference table in the Executive Mansion at which his own was the final and determining word.

Over against the admittedly superb management of the war as a whole the charge is currently made that certain of the permanent bureaus of the War Department have manifested not merely an inadequate grasp of the situation, but absolute incompetency where there was needed efficiency of the highest order. It need not be remarked that no commander-in-chief could have foreseen or provided against such a revelation of departmental weakness. The application of swift remedies as soon as the mischief became evident, and the prompt appointment of a commission of eminent citizens to ascertain and report every fact bearing on the case and tending to fix responsibility, sufficiently testify the President's earnestness and open-mindedness in the premises and his purpose to prevent a recurrence of the evils complained of. After making allowance for much exaggeration and for many individual instances of incompetency and worse, it is possible that it is a vicious system which has broken down, and that no remedy will be effective or enduring which does not reorganize our permanent war establishment and thoroughly revise the relation of the national Government to the volunteer troops in time of war.

PEACE AND ITS PROBLEMS.

When, with the destruction of Spain's power of resistance and our generous treatment of her surrendered troops, came her request for terms

of peace, the President was prompt to meet half way the Spanish advance, but inflexibly firm in demanding that the logical and legitimate results of the war as he understood them should be conserved. The conditions named by him at once commended themselves to our own people and to the fair-minded everywhere as moderate and wise, embracing no element of unnecessary

bear of little minds, yet back of all rose the question, alleged to be still graver, whether the traditions, the genius and welfare of the republic, if not the spirit of the Constitution itself, did not bar for us a policy of national expansion involving the absorption and the permanent control and defense of remote lands peopled by many millions, alien of race and mainly unfit to enter upon the experience of local self-government.

How a narrow mind, in bondage to appearances, to precedent, to technicalities, and to the phrasemaker, and having the responsibility of virtually deciding this question for the nation, would have acted under these conditions, it is not difficult to guess. What course the President has in fact pursued is current history. Cuba is to be liberated from Spanish oppression and held in trust by the United States for the benefit of the people of Cuba until the latter shall have organized a stable and free government. Porto Rico, whose people have welcomed the American flag, is to be American territory, useful mainly as a national outpost. For similar convenience an island of the Ladrões in the Pacific passes under our control. Finally, the future of the Philippines is left to be fixed by treaty, with the certainty that the United States commissioners will agree to no settlement which would re-mand the great archipelago to Spanish and priestly misrule tempered with periodic anarchy.

Not through timidity nor lack of a policy of his own,

but in decent deference to the opinion of the nation did President McKinley refrain from fixing in the protocol the final disposition of the Philippines as he thus fixed the destiny of Porto Rico. Their annexation or practical control by the United States, from which outcome he has thus far seen no honorable escape if escape were desirable, involve a new departure so radical and wide-reaching that he was more than willing the country should have opportunity to discuss the question before it was foreclosed and impress its



THE PRESIDENT AT CAMP WIKOFF, WITH GENERAL WHEELER (VICE-PRESIDENT HOBART STANDS BEHIND THE GENERAL).

severity and nothing designed to humiliate a defeated foe. The President and his advisers, in confronting this problem of a settlement of the issues of the struggle, even before the white flag was raised, were not blind to the apparent inconsistency of demanding considerable cessions of territory at the end of a war which we had proclaimed to be waged unselfishly, solely from motives of humanity, and with no purpose of national aggrandizement. If this were met with the obvious aphorism that consistency is the bug-

judgment upon the treaty-making power. As to what that judgment will be the President probably has little anxiety. His chief solicitude would naturally center about the new and vast responsibilities rolled upon his administration by the new order of things. None will doubt the firmness of his purpose that the same considerations of humanity which compelled our intervention in behalf of Cuba shall determine the lines of settlement with all interests, east and west, now that peace has come through victory. Much has occurred between April and September. New rights of new peoples have emerged, and new duties necessarily follow.

HISTORIC INCIDENTAL RESULTS.

The definite and epoch-making events here hastily outlined, in which President McKinley has necessarily been the central figure, are almost equaled in salutary and historic significance by what may be termed the collateral and resulting incidents of the opening period of his administration.

The conduct of the national finances as related to the war period forms a suitable parallel to the military campaign. Instance: against opposing advice and predictions of failure from the same fiscal experts who under the preceding administration approved a practical brokerage of \$9,000,000 for negotiating \$62,000,000 of United States 4-per-cent. bonds in time of peace, Congress and the President went directly to our own people for a loan of \$200,000,000 at 3 per cent. in time of war. The memorable response, promptly tendering six times the desired sum, with no commission to any one, blazes a pathway for future administrations. The Nicaragua Canal, commercially desirable before, has by this year's events become well-nigh a national military necessity, and the President seems likely to realize his wish of seeing its construction inaugurated under the exclusive ownership and control of the United States during his administration.

The obliteration of the last vestige of estrangement between the North and South is one of the great compensations of the war with Spain. The prompt and patriotic response of the Southern States and the President's wise and unsolicited appointment of prominent ex-Confederates to important commands in the new army marked and constituted the final step in the unification of our people. The thirty-third anniversary of Appomattox witnessed the completed reunion of the States. Hardly less beneficent has been the leveling of artificial barriers between political parties.

The nation has been a unit in its attitude toward the war and in loyal support of its chosen leader in the performance of his great task. Seldom if ever in the republic's past has a President enjoyed the confidence and good-will of all citizens in a like degree. And no President has more frankly or effectively shown that he preferred to be regarded and remembered as the official head of an entire people rather than merely as the office-holding leader of a successful party. History seems to be repeating itself in a latter-day "era of good feeling."

PRESIDENT M'KINLEY AND THE NEW OUTLOOK.

The war's unavoidable outcome in a Larger America, involving a colonial system, territorial possessions spanning one hundred and eighty degrees of longitude, governmental and trade relations with populous communities of other tongues and customs, close and vital connections with the commerce and policies of the Orient, a place and voice in international councils—these things cannot fail to lift our civic life to a higher level. We could not if we would longer be wholly absorbed in or divided by local and domestic issues. We have ceased to be provincial. Our thoughts and discussions must henceforth embrace the world.

President McKinley's official term falls at the close of the first and beginning of the second era in the republic's history—at the point where the nation, having completed its minority, leaves behind the maxims and limitations applicable only to childhood and enters almost suddenly upon the wider activities and responsibilities of mature and virile national life. He must see, as our people see, that this great commonwealth is henceforth a world power, unable, if it wished, to continue that isolation which was its safety in days of weakness, and that to his administration largely fall the duty and the honor of adjusting the nation to its new and enlarged orbit. Is the President equal to the occasion? A bell is judged by the degree of its resonance—by the completeness of its response to the blow of its iron tongue. And men are fairly measured by their human quality of resonance—by the promptness and greatness with which they respond, each in his place and hour, to the hammer-stroke of great emergency and great opportunity. So tested and so measured in view of the record thus far completed, William McKinley stands in the eye of the world to-day. The future must be judged by the past.

MEDICAL AND SANITARY ASPECTS OF THE WAR.

BY DR. CARROLL DUNHAM.

NOW that actual fighting is over, and doubtless over for good, it is undeniable that failure adequately to safeguard the health of the American troops is the one blot on an otherwise fair account. Mere fault-finding is of little service and is not the purpose of this article; its purpose is to survey the events of the late war in so far as they bear on the health of the men in the service, with the single wish to learn and to tell the truth. When the events are those of yesterday and to day this is a difficult undertaking, but it is worth while. Each sincere effort to present the facts strengthens the determination of the American people to get at the reasons for whatever weakness, fault, defective organization, or lack of pure and single will to worthily perform great obligations has caused the tragical inefficiency of the Government's care of its men in the hour of their highest service and their greatest need.

WHAT WE ARE CAPABLE OF.

It is not as if we had no standard of administrative duties done with which to compare these shortcomings. We have one close at hand, at home, familiar to the public mind and dear to every heart. We entered on the late war fearing that our navy was too small to force it to a quick end. The swift succession of events has gloriously disappointed us. We know now that our navy belongs to the highest type of systematized cooperative energy. Although it has been developed during years of peace, it is a perfect machine, animated with intelligence and enthusiasm, yet instantly obedient from top to bottom to the control of the master mind. From stoker to engineer, from cabin-boy to admiral, there is one informing spirit: love of the service is fused with love of country, the honor of the man and the honor of the flag cannot be separated. The long discipline, the strictly professional spirit of the service, the effective unity which is the crown of steady, faithful labor, have set the American navy before our people and our fellow-nations as a brilliant standard.

THE ARMY AND NAVY COMPARED.

In comparing the army with the navy, important fundamental differences between them should be borne in mind, otherwise the comparison will mislead. First, then, the navy has

been treated as a unit and has been trained as a unit. Its commanders, through practical experience in actually doing things at sea with warships, have become masters of the difficult art of handling numbers so as to bring out all their strength in attack and direct it where they wished. The regular army of the country, a small body of professional soldiers, has done its work scattered at military posts all over the vast area of the United States. None of its commanders has had an opportunity of handling an army corps in the field. Not one of the larger problems of war, such as mobilization, providing and distributing sustenance for thousands of soldiers in motion, the precise marshaling of a divided force so as to concentrate it on a particular point at a specified time—none of these larger problems has been worked out practically. The army's work has been a larger sort of police duty. An equally important difference between the services is that while the navy remains a unit in war, the regular army becomes merely the nucleus of our military force—the core of the apple. The Hull bill was designed to give increased efficiency to the war force of the republic by using the regular army as leaven for the volunteers. It was to furnish an organized skeleton for the new regiments which should be brought up to full strength by the enlistment of volunteers. This was a workmanlike plan which would have been of great use in the sudden emergency we were called to face, but enough militiamen opposed the bill to cause its defeat in its original form, and the emasculated bill which became law was shorn of a large part of its efficiency.

Now, the fundamental reason why the army has fallen so far short of the navy is the reason why it has not been correspondingly developed. We have disapproved of a standing army, and though we have seen that one was necessary, we have taken care to keep it just as small as possible. Through their Congress our people have declined to authorize a development of the military service which should keep any sort of pace with the development of the population. Since 1875 the number of enlisted men has been strictly limited to 25,000, or one-thirtieth of 1 per cent. of 70,000,000. Some of us have been influenced by the bogey of arbitrary power and the notion that a larger standing army would

give too much strength to the central Government at Washington. All of us have been busy with other tasks and have not thought it worth while to pay much attention to the army. We assumed that its chief use would be for defense, and in our peaceful mass we were strong enough to be safe from any outside interference. We reasoned that if ever it became necessary we could at any time, and on the shortest notice, put an immense militia force in the field, who would fight for their homes as their fathers had fought before them. To sum up, we assigned police duty to the regular army and national defense to the militia.

Suddenly involved in the practical business of offensive warfare, the navy has perfectly responded to every demand made on it by circumstances, many of which could not have been foreseen. The army also has dared and done. Every man of the great Teutonic stock is proud of the dashing courage of the Santiago campaign, and feels himself ennobled by that great demonstration of fortitude in battle and humanity afterward. But that the army has not in all respects proved itself master in emergency is to be recognized as a consequence flowing in part from the policy of the country in military affairs. As a sensible people we shall sift out the lessons of this war, apply our experience in practice, modify our policy, and see to it that our army, whatever its force may be, shall be so trained in the art of war and so related to the great body of militia that its efficiency as an expression of national energy and intelligence will put it on a par with what we know the navy is.

PREVENTION THE GREAT DUTY.

In every war, until 1870, disease has killed more men than guns. For the first time, in the Franco-Prussian War, the Germans triumphed over disease. Forty thousand five hundred men died during that brief war, 28,202 from wounds, 12,180 from disease. This is a demonstration of the possible.

The public knows that important progress has been made in surgery, in the knowledge of many kinds of infection, and in general sanitation during the thirty-three years which have elapsed since the close of our Civil War. We think ourselves the last people to neglect the practical utilization of advancing scientific knowledge. In our great hospitals the latest results of European study are frequently put to use before the European practitioners themselves appreciate their new resources. We are not lacking in self-confidence and we are often justified. It was, therefore, taken for granted that although we were not prepared for war we could cross the river

when we got to it. We did not expect any serious trouble with our men before sending them to Cuba if we kept the weak ones out of the army to begin with. This preliminary work fell to the army medical department. On every side men were turned away because they were not sound enough to be trained for war.

The function of the military medical officer is to select men who will make capable soldiers and to keep them fit for duty. This seems too plain to be worth the drop of ink it takes to print it. But what does it mean? It means that prevention is the backbone of medical work in war. Prevention, not cure, wisdom before the harm is done rather than mending afterward, the stitch in time that saves—that is the chief duty of military medicine.

The rigid examination of volunteers is thus the first step in the medical work of the army. It prevents the entrance of unsound material. Soldiers must be chosen from those who are fit to endure service in the field, and the army must be protected from the unfit.

Having made sure of the healthy recruit, the next duty is to keep him healthy and to adapt him to his special duties as a soldier. He must be trained till he can take long marches and is tough enough to turn his hand to any task; he must be broken in to regular hours and to the severe diet of the army ration; he must be taught to yield himself willingly to the control of those who are for the time his superiors. It is a fine spectacle to see thousands of American men habituated from childhood to a nearly complete independence, masters of themselves and equal with their fellows, learn easily and thoroughly to submit to military discipline.

But it is not enough that a soldier should implicitly obey orders in matters military. He must obey them with equal precision in matters sanitary. And there's the rub. The intelligent soldier has heard of bacilli and bacteria and knows that they bear relation of some sort to recent advances in our knowledge of disease, but he does not think of them as being dangerous to troops as bullets are dangerous. The fact is that they are even more dangerous than Mauser bullets shot off with smokeless powder. Both hit without giving a sign to the eye whence they come, and of the two the Mausers hit less often and hit less hard. The reported experience of the Turkish army in the recent campaign in Thessaly is an extreme one. Turkey lost something less than 1,000 men in battle; 19,000 more died of disease in Thessaly; 22,000 were invalided and sent home, and of these 8,000 subsequently died. This is a ratio of 1 man killed in fight to 27 killed by disease. Most of these

deaths were unnecessary. They were due to diseases which would not have occurred under proper and vigilant sanitary administration.

Our men have suffered from preventable diseases. In a modern scientifically run hospital our men would have been kept well. We know enough about many infectious diseases to prevent them from spreading widely when we can control the essential conditions. In order to accomplish this expert knowledge is necessary in those who are in command. Precision and conscientious detail work are necessary on the part of subordinates. Obedience to orders is necessary in the rank and file.

Evidently the way to secure such conditions in a volunteer camp is the chief task. The soldier boys have come to the support of the country with enthusiasm. They are healthy fellows; the medical examiners have seen to that. They know that they can do nothing in the field when it comes to fighting unless they learn to obey their officers, and they drill with all their might. In all matters where they fully understand the necessity for doing certain things they will obey any orders. They grumble at the army ration, a concentrated, nutritious, and easily portable diet, which they do not like; they growl at their clothing, which they think is too heavy for summer and absurd for service in the tropics; their shoes hurt their feet, which is the last thing an army shoe should do, and make marching painful and for some of them impossible. The statement has been made, as a result of observation in Germany, that 5 per cent. of infantry troops ordinarily shod are incapacitated by a forced march. This means the handicapping of a much larger percentage.

There are a score of precautions that should be regularly taken to prevent disease. One of the simplest of these is to boil all drinking-water, so as to make sure that any microorganisms it may contain shall be destroyed before being swallowed. How do the volunteers observe this precaution in camp? At first they boil their water because they have been instructed to do so. But the weather grows hot and hotter, they have what seems to them insufficient food, they are drilling all the time, and they are footsore and weary—wary as they had never supposed men could be. Is it strange if men so situated, sweating and thirsty from their labors, get careless about boiling their water? It goes without saying that they ought not to be allowed to get careless in taking any sanitary precaution; it is the business of their officers to see that they obey orders. But many of the officers themselves have failed to appreciate the greatness of their responsibility in these sanitary matters. Even if they have done militia

duty at home, they have not had any training in military philosophy. They do not take large professional views of their work as men in authority. They are brave, they are patient, they do their duty as they see it with all their hearts, but the fact is—and there is no use blinking at it—they are not trained and competent soldiers.

Tactics mean to them the various maneuvers by which troops are handled in the field; strategy means the moving of forces as chessmen are moved on the board. This is all right as far as it goes, but it does not go nearly far enough to be up to the times. To see only one-half of one's duty is a pretty sure way of doing not more than half of it at the best. "He that aims at the moon will shoot higher than he that means a tree." The well-informed commander of today knows that the little matter of boiling camp water before drinking it is really of vast importance. It cannot always be accomplished when advancing on the enemy, but it can always be done in camp. He knows that the sanitary condition of a force in active campaigning may be so good that it is free to move, able to endure forced marching and sharp fighting, and to push forward with a speed and energy which fully double its efficiency. He knows that the same force of men unscientifically cared for is hampered in its movements by its sick, its effective number is reduced, it can do less when reinforced than it ought to do alone. He knows that in loss of military strength there is nothing to choose between one man sick and two men killed. And he knows very well that the difference between an army that has faithfully boiled its water while in camp preparing for the field and an army that has neglected to do so, may be the difference between an army carrying typhoid fever with it as an invisible ally of the enemy and one free from that infection.

It is not hard to understand how it is that men suddenly called on for service, hurriedly gathered together in great camps, hastily supplied and under the orders of commanders who have not handled large bodies of troops in war, should have become the victims of preventable disease. To understand is not to excuse. Because a duty presents difficulties it is not the less a duty. Troops are punished for breaches of discipline. Officers would certainly be held rigidly to account if they sent their men into action unarmed or short of ammunition. They should be held just as rigidly responsible for laxity in enforcing sanitary regulations. No subject is of more importance to the master of an army than the medical supervision of his forces. Whatever rigidity of discipline is needed to enforce thorough sanitation it is his imperative duty to

maintain, not primarily because he wants to be kind to his men, but because it is a military necessity for him to have his force in shape for use. Other things being equal, the general who is a stern sanitarian will win in the long run, and this becomes more and more exactly true with the advance of knowledge.

THE GREAT CAMPS AND THEIR CARE.

When the volunteers assembled in response to the President's call they were first gathered together in small camps in their respective States and then transferred to the great government camps which were established at points conveniently situated for rapid movement to ports on the Gulf and the South Atlantic coast. The selection of these great camps was an important piece of work which called for the exercise of foresight and sound judgment. They must be easily accessible and provided with every possible facility for transportation; they must be at strategic centers; they must be suited to the sanitary needs of large bodies of troops.

The sanitary requisites of the military camp which is to be occupied for a considerable time are good water in abundance, a dry, porous soil with good natural drainage, plenty of wood for fuel, grass for feeding mules and horses. If the first two of these requisites are secured it is possible to prevent the occurrence of most of the camp diseases, provided the commanding officers carry out with precision the recommendations of competent medical officers whose duty it is to advise them, and provided the troops are properly supplied.

Immediately after the war began, on April 25, the surgeon-general issued a circular of instruction to medical officers of the army stating the dangers of camp life and giving the most important means of prevention in a precise and comprehensive way. He recognized at the start that the result of a campaign may depend on sanitary measures adopted or neglected by commanding generals in the field, and that this put a great responsibility upon medical officers because they are responsible advisers of their commanders. He then pointed out the dangers facing our armies in Cuba, calling attention to the fact that they would contend there not only with malarial fevers and the usual camp diseases—typhoid fever, diarrhœa, and dysentery—but would be exposed to yellow fever in its home while themselves in unfavorable conditions. Finally he gave specific instructions covering the chief points of camp hygiene and police.

It will be clear to the intelligent reader who has followed the considerations presented that the water he drinks and the soil on which he

camps should be chosen for the soldier with a care commensurate with their importance. All competent sanitarians know what these should be, and there are hundreds of practical men in the country who can easily and accurately determine whether or not a given place is really suited to the uses of a camp.

These military camps should have been chosen for two main reasons: because they were places suitable for healthy camps; because they were conveniently situated for receiving and distributing supplies and troops. Chickamauga was chosen because it was already the property of the United States; because it was convenient; because it was high and attractive. Its soil is not suited for a large military encampment. It consists of a few inches of loam with an underlying bed of dense clay, which extends everywhere to bed-rock. The ground remains damp after rain and cold even when exposed to the sun for a long time. Water collects in pools where it is held by clay. The weather is hot by day, cold and damp by night. The water-supply is in part from artesian wells and springs: but some of the troops have used ground-water which has been exposed to infection. At Camp Alger, in Virginia, the water-supply was insufficient and the place unsuited for camping. At Tampa, Fla., the soil was admirably adapted for camping, being very light and sandy to a great depth—thus insuring a perfect drainage—and the water-supply was good.

If what should have happened had happened, our picked men gathered in these camps, living regular lives on simple and nourishing diet, drilling all the time and living out of doors in the early months of an American summer, would not have suffered. On the contrary, they would have gained in health and strength and have been better able to endure a campaign in the tropics after their camp life than before it. This would have been the result in the English, the French, or the German army to-day. That the reverse has been our own experience is humiliating to us as a practical people.

TYPHOID FEVER.

Typhoid fever was the camp fever of the Civil War. It was usually at its worst a few weeks after each new levy of troops was assembled in camp. During the first year of the war it attacked about 8 per cent. of our men, killing more than 35 per cent. of white and more than 55 per cent. of colored troops attacked. At the beginning of our war with Spain it was foreseen by competent men that a like danger would threaten our troops in the great government camps. We know a great deal more about typhoid fever now than we did during the Civil

War, for we have discovered the bacillus producing it and we know how the disease may be transmitted. The typhoid bacilli thrive and multiply in organic matter. The disease is produced by their activity in the human intestine. They are in the organic wastes of those who have the fever. Typhoid is transmitted from man to man by the transference of these living bacilli from such organic wastes of the fever patient to the digestive tract of another human being. This may occur directly—as from uncleanness of the camp sinks or any contamination of the fingers of nurses or attendants—or it may occur indirectly—as from an infection of the water-supply by seepage through the soil from collections of organic refuse or by the action of flies walking on heaps of infected wastes and then going to camp kitchens and crawling over the food. It is of the most extreme importance that these bacilli should be kept out of the water-supply, because the method of transference by means of drinking-water is a wholesale one which produces epidemic outbreaks of the disease. Viewed largely, where, as in military medicine, the main conditions can be controlled, typhoid fever is the type of a preventable disease.

In military camps the organic wastes of the human body are thrown into trenches called sinks, which are dug to varying depths in the ground. It is part of the sanitary policing to cover these wastes every few hours with a layer of fresh earth and to fill them up altogether before they approach too near the surface. The chief danger in the situation thus produced is that the rainfall in its course from the surface to the deeper parts of the soil will carry with it disease-producing organisms which will thus find their way into the water-supply. This danger probably cannot be eliminated in any large military camp getting its water from local wells, ponds, or running streams, except by systematically removing the organic wastes from camp.

That the conditions necessary to safeguard the health of troops have not been successfully carried out is undeniable. In this connection Circular No. 5 issued by the surgeon-general is of importance:

WAR DEPARTMENT,
SURGEON-GENERAL'S OFFICE,
WASHINGTON, August 8, 1898.

Circular No. 5.

The attention of medical officers is invited to Circular No. 1 from this office dated Washington, April 25, 1898.

The extensive prevalence of typhoid fever in camps of instruction indicates that the sanitary recommendations made in this circular have not been carried out. If medical officers have failed to make the proper recom-

mendations as indicated, the responsibility rests with them. If the recommendations have been made and not acted upon by those having authority in the various camps, the responsibility is not with the medical department, but these recommendations should be repeated and commanding officers urged to move their camps at frequent intervals and to maintain a strict sanitary police.

GEORGE M. STERNBERG,
Surgeon-General U. S. Army.

MALARIAL FEVERS.

Peculiarly to be feared in the Cuban campaign were malarial fevers and yellow fever. Of these the former, caused by a minute organism, the *Plasmodium malariae*, can only be guarded against in the present state of our knowledge by keeping those exposed in the best possible condition and using certain precautions, among which is avoidance of swamp-water, sleeping under cover, and in general protection from the extremes of heat and cold, wetness and dryness of a tropical climate. The malarial plasmodium destroys the red-blood corpuscle, and it should be noted that men who have suffered from severe malarial fevers become, as a result of this destruction, more or less incapable for a time of assimilating food. They suffer from a kind of chronic starvation. This does not justify keeping such convalescents on the army ration, but it does explain the fact that they sometimes fail to improve at once when fed with delicate and abundant food. What they need is time and pure air.

YELLOW FEVER.

For a hundred years prior to 1761 Havana had a reputation for the salubrity of its climate and the absence of epidemic disease. In that year yellow fever established itself there, beginning its local habitation by the destruction of 3,000 persons. Eight years later a little army of 3,500 came from Spain and was immediately decimated. The next year 8,000 men were landed, of whom 2,000 were destroyed within two months. Since that time yellow fever has prevailed constantly in Havana and probably in other places in Cuba every year.

"... During the four hundred and eight months 1846-79 there was only one single month free from an officially reported case of yellow fever."*

This disease has never obtained a permanent foothold in the United States, though our Gulf cities and our Atlantic coast cities also have suffered severely from epidemics of it. The ports of Cuba are a continuing source of danger to our country, because Cuba is the permanent

*Dr. Chaillé, president of the commission sent to Havana by the United States National Board of Health, 1879. *Vide* report of the commission.

home of yellow fever. The loss of life and the injury produced by this affection in the United States are such that if the evacuation of Cuba is followed by the restoration of Havana and other Cuban ports to the salubrious condition they once enjoyed, the war would prove a good investment for the United States.

GENERAL HOSPITALS AND THE LARGER AMBULANCE SERVICE.

In anticipation of active service general hospitals were established at Key West, Fla. (755 beds); at Fort McPherson, Georgia (1,050 beds); at Fort Thomas, Kentucky (432 beds); at Chickamauga (Leiter Hospital, 255 beds); at Fortress Monroe, Virginia (535 beds); and at Fort Myer, Virginia (308 beds). There was in addition accommodation for several hundred in the Marine Hospital at Staten Island, N. Y., in civil hospitals in New York, in Brooklyn, in Charleston, and for small numbers in civil hospitals scattered throughout the country.

In order to transport the sick and wounded from the front to these hospitals what may be called the greater ambulance service was organized. This consisted of several hospital ships carefully and thoroughly equipped, fitted with medical supplies, and carrying surgeons and nurses, which were designed to ply between Cuba or Porto Rico and Key West, Tampa, or other coast cities. For distribution from Tampa a hospital train was provided, consisting of ten sleeping-cars and a dining-car, which made numerous trips between that port and various inland hospitals.

THE MOVEMENT AGAINST SANTIAGO.

The entrance of Cervera's fleet into Santiago Bay was fortunate for us. As soon as the presence there of his formidable ships was ascertained the Government determined to make the work of the navy more swift and certain by sending a land force to hem in Santiago, cut off Morro Castle and the batteries, and thus prevent the operation of the harbor mines. When these operations should be completed American warships could steam into the harbor and engage the Spaniards at close quarters, while our military forces delivered the fire of their heavy siege guns from the surrounding hills. Such in outline was the plan of action as given to the public in the beginning of June. It was stated at the same time that the climate of Santiago Province, while hot, was free from most of the deadly diseases prevailing in other parts of Cuba, and that our men would gradually and without extreme danger become acclimated, so that when the campaign against Santiago was over they

would be in good condition for the hardest kind of service in less healthful portions of the island.

The troops for this expedition were massed at Tampa, and on June 5 some 35,000 men were in camp. Siege guns were sent forward provided with special trucks or carriages, low and strong, with wheels four or five inches wide, so that they might be taken over the rough Cuban roads to the tops of the Santiago hills. On June 10, as if to prepare a landing-place for the invading army, the fleet under Admiral Sampson entered Guantanamo Bay and put a force of marines ashore. Guantanamo Bay, a safe and capacious harbor, something over forty miles east of Santiago, offered the navy a secure refuge and a port on the southern coast of Cuba within striking distance of that city, where transports could disembark troops and supplies in quiet water. At this time it appeared to be the purpose of the War Department to land troops there and move them on Santiago from Guantanamo, building roads and sending its guns and supplies with the army as it moved. Such a plan combined the objects of laying siege to the city and establishing a sufficient and permanent base in the island. Its defect was that it allowed Admiral Cervera time for choosing the most favorable chance to force his way through the blockading fleet.

DELAYS IN STARTING.

The embarkation of the troops from Tampa was delayed over and over again, apparently because of the great difficulties encountered by the various subordinate divisions of the War Department in supplying a complete equipment for field service in a foreign country. The newspapers reported at this time that there were eight or nine miles of loaded freight cars standing on a single track at Tampa without bills of lading or destination marks, and that cars had to be broken open in a perfectly blind search for supplies urgently needed. Compared with our well-known ability to move enormous freight tonnage, such a condition appears puerile. Transportation was in such a state of congestion that there was serious danger of complete paralysis. The condition of things near the army camps was like that in lumbering where a great number of logs, gathering where the stream runs swift and narrow, fill it, become wedged, and pile up in an extreme confusion, called a "jam."

The difficulties encountered in providing equipment for the volunteers called out by the President had proved greater than had been expected. Reports from the several States were at first to the effect that about 90 per cent. of the men volunteering were men from the militia, who were both equipped and trained. The supplies neces-

sary to enable such men to start for the field would be in part brought with them from their home States. But when the men were mustered in these expectations were disappointed. Instead of 90 per cent., it turned out that only 40 per cent. of the volunteers were militiamen. The War Department was therefore called on at short notice to provide entirely not only for the 10 per cent. figured on, but for one-half of the army of volunteers into the bargain—that is to say, of the first call for volunteers to the number of 125,000 men, the War Department had to provide not for 12,500, but for 75,000 men.

When war was declared there was no equipment whatever on hand for volunteers. It is true that the famous fifty-million-dollar emergency appropriation had been made, but no part of this sum appears to have been used to prepare for equipment of volunteers certain to be called out. The grand total of men actually in service and including the increased regular army reached 263,500.*

Looking at the work of buying, moving, and distributing army supplies, it appears that quartermasters have done their buying as quickly and carefully as the laws in force permitted; that transportation has been reasonably prompt, though not without confusion and several instances of a congestion which could have been avoided by any one of a dozen trained railroad men; and that of the three functions the distribution of supplies to the soldiers has been least well done. The newspapers were full of statements of shortages of various supplies needed by our men while stacks of the required articles were near at hand, but unavailable because for reasons not clear to ordinary common sense they could not be distributed. This inability to take the final step, without which all the steps taken before are of no use to any one, has been repeated over and over again during the Spanish-American War. It has characterized in some degree all the large military camps, including the camp for the returning army of Santiago at Montauk Point. And there has been a like failure during the campaign against Santiago.

DETAILS OF THE MOVEMENT.

Whether or not there was an actual change of plan when General Shafter embarked with the Fifth Army Corps is not yet known to the public. There was great haste at the last moment following on the heels of vexatious delays, all supplies not absolutely necessary being left at Tampa. Indeed, the facts as reported force the conclusion that many supplies commonly and justly consid-

ered necessary were classed for the purpose of this particular campaign as impedimenta and were left behind. Among these were changes of clothing for the men and a great part of the medical supplies. A spirit of hot haste took possession of the force. The whole theory of the movement seemed to have been changed. Instead of going to Guantanamo, where a base was ready, and making an orderly progress following the safe rule of war which builds only on sure foundations, the attack on Santiago exposed an entire army corps to the hazards of assault.

The reasoning which led to this method of attack must have been based on the certainty that disease was by far the deadliest enemy to be feared in Cuba in July. The risks run were tremendous, but the campaign has been justified by its extraordinary success. Assuming that its daring spirit was also the spirit of practical good sense, it must have been based on a just dread of disease. Now, if it was so based, there can be no justification whatever for sending the army forward without such medical equipment as is regularly provided for its use. That this was done is common knowledge. The reserve medical supplies and ambulance corps were left at Tampa because transportation was insufficient.* These supplies should no more have been left behind than reserves of ammunition.

When the transports arrived off Santiago on June 20 and it was decided to make the landing at Baiquiri, some seventeen miles from Santiago, the difficulties in the way proved very great. Lighters had been sent forward to transfer supplies and guns from the ships to the shore. They were lost at sea. The second set of them ordered by cable met with the same fate. A single lighter from the navy was all the army had. A few pontoons were used, but nearly all the work of disembarking was done by means of small boats. Some of the siege guns, part of the medical supplies and hospital stores, and vast quantities of provisions were never put on shore at all. There were a great number of men to be put on land, and work was necessarily done in haste. But no houses were burned, no wells filled, no sinks dug. The surgeon in charge of the beach hospital, Major LaGarde, urged that every building on the shore should be burned, advice said to have been indorsed by Major Wood, chief of the First Division hospital in the field. When camp was established in the heart of the little village of Siboney its pretty vine-clad cottages were seized upon for headquarters and other administrative purposes. One of the first cases of yellow fever occurred in such a house. The village was not

* Secretary Alger to Mr. Depew, August 18, 1898.

* Surgeon-General Sternberg in *New York Medical Record*, August 6, 1898.

finally vacated and burned until after the arrival of General Miles.

The landing of troops was completed early in the last week of June. They were immediately pushed forward along trails unworthy to be called roads until they met and engaged the Spaniards. When they started from Baiquiri for the fighting line each man carried on his back a blanket, poncho, and three days' rations rolled in half of a shelter tent. Troops were instructed to take these neat packs wherever they went. Laboring over the hilly trail between dense jungle walls under a burning sun and plastered with mud from the stifling dust, they threw away, first, blankets and then the rest of their baggage.

"Coats, underclothes, and haversacks followed the bulkier articles, and the ground might have been the scene of a retreat instead of a scarcely opposed advance. When camp-time came our troops began to regret what they had lost. . . . The terrific heat passed and the damp night air seemed doubly chill after the exhausting march. . . . Many of the men had abandoned their rations . . . and as there was no hope of a supply train reaching the camps before two or three days the situation threatened to become a serious one. . . . Bacon and hard-tack in very limited quantity made up the bill of fare. The coffee supply was also very limited, and almost without exception the men had abandoned the tinned meats and vegetables with which they had been supplied at starting. The fare of officers and men in most of the regiments was identical. The officers had what each had packed for himself, and many of them had thrown their supplies away on the march. . . . The camps for the troops were located, so far as was possible, on the sides or crests of hills and as near running water as was thought wise. The water problem was thoroughly discussed previous to the departure of the army from Tampa. Military men, scientists, and civilians talked and wrote about the water which would be found in Cuba, and hundreds of sets of rules for its preparation and use were drawn up and published. Almost all the authorities agreed that the water must be boiled. Some wanted it filtered previous to boiling, and the army was instructed carefully what it must do to avoid disease from this source. It would pain the authors of the elaborate water regulations to watch the men at the front." (New York Sun, July 12, 1898.)

The men had no kettles. There was nothing whatever for them to boil water in but their tin drinking-cups. They were thus at the front, in the tropics, with salt pork or bacon and hard-tack for food. If they could have had coffee and rice, both of which are easily transportable,

they could have stood it. Later on, while men at the front were suffering for want of vegetable food, hundreds of barrels of potatoes and onions, which had spoiled on board the transports, were heaved into the sea.

BEHIND THE FIGHTING LINE.

The extraordinary fighting qualities displayed at Guasimas, Caney, and San Juan have added another page to the great record of human heroism. To serve this army corps there were the First Division field hospital, under Major Wood, in the brush three miles east of Santiago, the hospital on the beach under Major LaGarde, and the hospital ship *Olivette* lying off shore. The First Division hospital, on Friday, July 1, "consisted of three large tents for operating tables, pharmacy, dispensary, etc.; another of similar dimensions for wounded-officers; half a dozen small wall tents for wounded soldiers; and a lot of 'dog kennels,' or low shelter tents, for the hospital stewards, litter-bearers, and other attendants. . . . The professional force at the outset consisted of five surgeons." (George Kennan, *Outlook*, July 30, 1898.)

One of these five surgeons, Dr. Godfrey, stated in his report to the surgeon-general that "owing to the very small number of hospital corps men present with the division, and as the number of ambulances for the entire army was limited to three, it was impossible to expect them to convey the total number of wounded from the collecting stations to the First Division hospital." This hospital had shelter for about 100 wounded. It had neither cots, hammocks, mattresses, rubber blankets, nor pillows. Its supply of army blankets was very short. It had no clothing at all beyond three dozen shirts. There was no hospital food except a little beef extract and malted milk brought in the private baggage of one of the surgeons and held in reserve for desperate need. The five surgeons on duty had about twenty litter-bearers and assistants.* In the absence of transportation the medical officers had converted their horses into pack animals, loading them with medical supplies, and had led them on foot over the trails.

By 9 o'clock on the morning of July 1 the wounded began to come in. The five surgeons began their work, and as the wounded came fast and faster continued it without intermission for twenty-one hours. Late that evening they were reinforced by five more operators who came in from the front. By sundown on that day the five surgeons had dressed and operated on 154 men. After this time the men came so fast that records were omitted. By day the wounded lay

* Kennan. *Loc. cit.*

on the grass exposed to the tropical sun; by night they lay there damp and chilled. The weather was clear; there was no wind; the moon was nearly full. If there were any lanterns these surgeons did not have them. They worked by candlelight exposed to the fire of Spanish sharpshooters in the trees. Many of the wounded men who had gone into action under the fierce heat of a tropical day, having thrown away everything except their rifles and ammunition, reached the hospital half naked. The pitiful supply of blankets and shirts was almost immediately exhausted, and there was nothing at hand to cover these men from the scorching heat or the chilling cold. Mr. Kennan says: "If there has been any weakness or selfishness or behavior not up to the highest level of heroic manhood among the wounded American soldiers in this hospital during these three terrible days, I have failed to see it. As one of the army surgeons said to me, with the tears very near his eyes: 'When I look at these fellows and see what they stand, I am proud of being an American and I glory in the stock. The world has nothing finer.'" This hospital cared for about 800 men on July 1 and 2. From this point all that could walk or bear army-wagon transportation over the rough trail were sent to Siboney to the hospital steamers and transports.

It had been expected that the gunshot wounds produced by projectiles with very high velocity would be more destructive to life than any known to American experience. The reverse of this has proved to be the case. The small-caliber Mauser bullet which penetrates a yard of hard pine goes clean through a man when it hits. At short range it generally goes through him in a perfectly straight line and at such a rate of speed that it almost sears the wound from the heat generated. The fact that the bullet makes its exit from the tissues of the body does away with probing, a painful and dangerous procedure from which there is always a probability of infection under the conditions of field surgery. The high speed of the bullet gives it great penetration. It does not take bits of clothing with it into the wound and leave them there. It makes a clean tunnel through the wounded man from skin to skin, thus securing good drainage and a wound which is free from infection to begin with. If these wounds are promptly dressed on the field with aseptic dressings, such as all our soldiers now carry in the small first-aid packet—272,000 of these have been issued by the medical supply depots—the wounded men who require no operative treatment are in the most favorable condition for prompt and clean recovery. The tendency of such wounds, if simple ones, is to heal at once. The pain from them is moderate. The

proportion of recovery after gunshot wounds has been very large during our short experience of war. The use of the dressing in the first-aid packet in the field is one of the most admirable and practical applications of common sense to the care of the soldier that could have been devised. It is of interest also to note that the X-ray apparatus, which was brought into use in Cuba, has proved of great value in locating foreign bodies in the tissues and in the determination of the degree and character of fractures of the bones.

OUR MOST DANGEROUS ENEMIES.

No skill, no foresight could have saved our men from malarial infection under the conditions before Santiago. They were digging trenches, opening fresh ground and turning it over in the tropics during the rainy season. But now a danger greater even than any hitherto encountered suddenly faced our troops—a danger against which, so far as appears, no adequate precautions were taken by those in authority.

When notice of the bombardment was sent to the Spanish commander of Santiago the city gates were opened and the miserable inhabitants rushed out toward the invading army. They were received with a kindness which did more credit to the hearts than to the heads of our men, because, worn out and stricken with disease as they were, bearing with them hunger and infection, they were more truly menacing to the American army than were the troops of Spain. They mingled with our friendly soldiers. They filled the unburned villages of Caney and Siboney. Incredible as it seems, it is stated as a fact that the few ambulances in use by us were used to convey refugees many of whom were fever-stricken. And the same ambulances were then used to carry our own sick and wounded men.

There had been mutterings of yellow fever before this, but immediately after the pouring out into our lines of Santiago's refugees the trouble began. First a few cases, then 20, then 200. The chief surgeon of volunteers, who went to Santiago from Chickamauga with the reinforcements, said: "I was more than astonished when I arrived at Siboney on July 7 to find that thousands of refugees from infected districts were allowed to enter the camps unmolested and mingle freely with our own unsuspecting soldiers. All along the route, from the base of operations to the line of intrenchment, could be seen at short intervals scenes which were sure to bring about disastrous results. Our soldiers in a strange land and among strange people enjoyed at first the novelty, and were free in buying the fruits of the land and exchanging coins, not knowing how dearly they would be called upon

to pay for such a privilege. Houses and huts in which yellow fever was raging were visited freely, and the dangerous germs of the disease were inhaled as a matter of course. The results of such intimate association of our susceptible troops with the natives could be readily foreseen. It required only the usual time for the disease to make its appearance, and when it did so it was not in a single place, but all along the line from our intrenchments to Siboney.*

Here, again, it is instructive to compare the inability of the army to cope with circumstances with the efficiency of the navy. It was on June 10 that the marines landed at Guantanamo. As soon as they were in possession of the shore every hut on the beach was burned and the heads were knocked out of all the casks of Spanish wine. Camp was then pitched and rigidly policed. This camp was small and was near the shore, but the Cubans entered it and camped there too, and the hardships endured by the marines were great. Camp discipline was maintained. The Cuban allies were required and compelled to obey the rules of the camp—rules which were not only made, but enforced to the letter. Thirty-five days later, on July 15, there had not been a case of yellow fever at Camp McCalla, and that camp, free from disease itself, was strictly quarantined against the army camp at Siboney, where yellow fever was gaining with immense strides.

OUR ARMY DISABLED.

By the time Santiago was surrendered the strength of our army had become greatly reduced by the development of disease. It was in every way fortunate that knowledge of this fact was concealed, otherwise it is scarcely credible that the Spanish authorities would have capitulated. The health of our men declined with alarming rapidity. By the end of July it had become obvious to the commanding officers in the field that if the army were kept at Santiago its efficiency would be totally destroyed and the loss of life from disease would become appalling. In order to put the army under better sanitary conditions, the War Department directed the major-general commanding to move the army into the interior to San Luis, where the sanitary conditions were thought to be more favorable than on the coast. The receipt of this order led to the famous "round robin" which was addressed to General Shafter by eight of the officers commanding brigades, divisions, etc., of the army of occupation of Cuba. They said that the army should be at once removed out of Cuba to some point on

the northern seacoast of the United States; that this could be done without danger to the American people because yellow fever had yet not become epidemic in the army; that the army was so disabled by malarial fevers that its efficiency was gone; and that the epidemic of yellow fever certain to occur would probably utterly destroy it. Further, they were certain that the army was unable to move to the interior because of weakness and lack of facilities. If it was moved there it would suffer deadly losses from malaria. Then came the pregnant sentence: "This army must be moved at once or perish."

At this time scarcely 10 per cent. of the army of occupation—the flower of the American troops—were fit for duty. The receipt of this appeal determined the Government to move the entire army of Santiago north with the utmost possible dispatch, and it was decided to establish a great reception camp at Montauk Point, the eastern extremity of Long Island, a place easily accessible by water and at the terminus of the Long Island Railroad, to which it belonged.

THE ARMY TRANSPORTS BEARING HOME THE SICK.

In the meantime a wave of bitter indignation had swept over the country because of the wretched condition of some of the transports which had arrived at New York with wounded soldiers from the seat of war.

First came the *Seneca*, on July 21, with nearly 100 sick and wounded. She was a transport, but not a hospital ship, and was about to sail from Siboney with some fifty passengers—including newspaper men and military *attachés* of foreign governments who had been with the army—when her captain was ordered to take on board the sick and wounded soldiers. He protested, but in vain. Two young surgeons and one Red Cross nurse were assigned to the ship. Some of the soldiers were put into roughly constructed bunks down in the stifling hold. Just before the *Seneca* sailed from Siboney the nurse went over to the Red Cross ship *State of Texas* and got from the stock there such small quantities of medical supplies and beef tea, malted milk, etc., as could be spared. What she obtained in this way was about all for the sick the *Seneca* had on board when she left Cuba. The ship ran short of ice. Only a part of the water needed could be furnished by the condensers; wounds were washed with sea-water. When the wounds of some of the men opened and bled afresh during heavy weather at sea there were no bandages to bind them up with; the passengers tore up their shirts and skirts and used them. The surgeons had to do a necessary operation at sea with a pocket-knife because they could not wait and

* Dr. N. Senn, lieutenant-colonel of volunteers. Chicago Tribune, July 28, 1898.

had no instruments. The Quarantine officers at New York were delayed in deciding whether or not there was yellow fever on board because there were no temperature charts; but there could not be any because there was not a medical thermometer on the ship. (New York *Sun*, July 22.)

The *Concho* came in on July 29. She carried 172 sick and wounded. While ordered to take 175 convalescents from Siboney, she had berths for 58. This steamer sailed from Cuba on July 23. The drinking-water on board was that supplied at Tampa before General Shafter's army left there. The vessel was overcrowded with weak men, many of whom broke down at sea. Several were stricken with fever. There was one physician, himself weak from illness, and one male nurse. Of the Red Cross nurses on board, four were well enough to work. The food for the sick was the regular army ration. Medical supplies were lacking at Siboney and could not be spared for the *Concho*. There was no ice.

The condition of these and other transports gave rise to an illuminating order from the War Department, directing that all transports carrying sick or wounded should be thoroughly examined before leaving Cuba to prevent overcrowding and in order to see that they were properly supplied with food and medicine. I call this an illuminating order because it seems to indicate that this kind of inspection, which every one knows to be essential, had been omitted.

THE RESERVE TROOPS ENCAMPED IN THE UNITED STATES.

Meanwhile, of the grand total approaching 270,000 men in service, how had those fared who had stayed at home in the government camps instead of going out of the country to Manila, Cuba, and Porto Rico? Camp diseases, and notably typhoid fever, developed and spread at Chickamauga. At Camp Alger, near Washington, typhoid assumed such proportions that the camp became dangerous to the lives of our men. Nor is this to be wondered at, for the camp was badly situated and it was not kept in proper sanitary condition. Many of the soldiers there occupied small shelter tents set back to back with about a six-foot space between them. In the middle of this space was an open trench in which ran the greasy refuse from the camp—neither more nor less than an open sewer on either side of which the soldiers lived and slept. The great army camps have been gradually abandoned because of the alarming increase of disease in the troops occupying them.

An exception to this state of things is the camp at Jacksonville, Fla. The men there kept in

good condition and the small camp has made an excellent record. This was due not to the superior efficiency of the army discipline, but to the facts that the camp was in the municipal limits of Jacksonville and that Jacksonville is an up-to-date town and is served by efficient public officers. The mayor forbade the military men to dig sinks, exerting his authority as a municipal officer. All the organic wastes of the camp were carted away by the city authorities and immediately burned in the public crematory.

Regiments have come back from our great army camps having seen no active service whatever, but showing losses greater than those they would have suffered in a fighting campaign. Men will be invalidated for life; men will be dying for ten years to come because of diseases which ought to have been prevented. It has been said already in this article that a sojourn in a properly administered camp during the summer-time should be beneficial to the health of troops. The measure in which we have fallen short of this result is the measure of administrative incapacity. A part of this is due to the unwieldy and over-complicated administration of the War Department. There should be a perfect dovetailing of the different kinds of work and a precise devolution of responsibility, direct and simple, such as must exist and does exist in every complicated and successful business. But a large part of our incapacity is due to the systematic appointment of men to positions of executive trust for political reasons. If this policy is ever tolerable during peace it is never anything short of an iniquity in war.

THE ARMY OF CUBA AT MONTAUK.

Montauk Point was secured for a military camp and steps were at once taken to prepare for the reception of the returning troops. Adequate precautions were taken to prevent the outbreak of epidemic disease in the United States as a result of the movement of troops to the northern seaboard. While this was done the preparation of Montauk should have added to this regard for the safety of the country a like regard for the care and treatment of an army which was made up of invalids from disease or privation. Nearly every man of that force was in need of medical treatment. From the outset the preparations for hospital accommodation, nursing, and medical supervision of the men have borne no true relation to the necessities of the situation. Invalids arrived in small detachments by rail and began to come from the seat of war on transports early in August. The object-lesson which has been given to the country in the vain endeavor to get Camp Wikoff ready to receive the

soldiers is proof positive of the executive inefficiency of the War Department. That a body of contract carpenters hired in Brooklyn for \$1.50 a day struck for higher wages and refused to work in the rain at any price, thus for a time crippling the building of a hospital desperately needed; that men weakened by the ravages of typhoid fever slept on the ground with nothing to eat but army rations brought up from the tropics and with milk as much beyond their reach as if there were no cows in the northern parts of the United States; that troops of the regular army, weakened by extreme privation in Cuba, were denied fresh rations because, forsooth, they had not eaten all the rations issued to them in the tropics and under the regulations could be allowed no more food until they had consumed all that had been requisitioned—these incidents, taken at random, should satisfy any logical mind.

The reports of the army transports arriving at Montauk repeated in some instances the history of the *Concho* and the *Seneca*. The *Mobile*, "so overcrowded that the sick had scarcely breathing-room," brought 300 sick men in a total of 1,600. The food for all was the army ration. The *Relief* brought troops from Porto Rico, of whom more than 150 had typhoid fever. The probability is strong that this disease did not originate in Porto Rico, but rather in the improperly managed government camps in the United States, whence it was exported with our troops to that island.

In striking contrast with the struggles of the War Department to prepare Montauk and its utter inability to work in a hurry is the swift and quiet demonstration by the Navy Department of the action of an effective organization with a rational devolution of executive responsibility. At Portsmouth on less than two days' notice barracks were built and every preparation made to receive 1,100 Spanish prisoners of war sent up from Santiago, where they had been captured at the time Cervera's fleet was destroyed. When the prisoners arrived their barracks had been built, roofed in, and furnished—barracks, not tents—the kitchens were not quite done, but the cooking-ranges were in place and ready for use. These Spaniards have been kept there some two months in a comfort which would have saved many lives if our own soldiers could have fared as well as these captives of the navy.

When the troops began to be sent home from Montauk they were sent by rail the whole length of Long Island. The suffering caused by this proceeding during the great heat of early September was very great, although it was entirely avoidable. No place on the coast is more easily

reached by water than Montauk. The men could more comfortably, more commodiously, and more cheaply have been moved to Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, or New Jersey by water than by rail. The sufferings of the Eighth Ohio, "The President's Own," and of the 32 sick men belonging to the Thirty-third and Thirty-fourth Michigan—who were moved from the hospital to the railroad station and then back again because the officials were out of transportation blanks, and who reached the hospital only to find that their places had been given to other sick men—these instances are types of a considerable number which point toward the same inevitable conclusion.

If this sort of thing was happening far away from home, where those in authority were short of help or of money, we could wait in patience for reasons. But this is going on at our very doors, within a few hours of the richest city in America, under the eyes and almost at the door-yards of people whose sons, brothers, and husbands are in camp. The machinery of administration has proved unequal to the strain put on it. There are other reasons for the break-down; but in fairness it should not be forgotten that this is one.

CONCLUSION.

An almost infinite multitude of details could be cited in support of the opinion that we have failed to take proper care of our men. Secretary Alger in his letter to Mr. Depew says, "Every effort has been made from the beginning to furnish every camp with all appliances asked for," and again, speaking of the army in Cuba: "Everything that human ingenuity could devise has been done to succor that army—not the ingenuity of the Secretary of War, but the result of the combined counsel of those who have had a life-long experience in the field." To succor is well—the people are taking a hand in that also; but the duty of the men who knew and could therefore look ahead was to prevent. The chance was theirs to make succor in most cases unnecessary. The contention is not that no effort has been made, but that the failure has been so grave. Had we been pitted against any power stronger than Spain the result would have been a catastrophe.

A people that created the World's Fair at Chicago, that breeds men by dozens capable of operating enormous combinations like the railroads, like the trusts, like the great dry-goods stores in the big cities, cannot bear this sort of inefficiency. We have been through it before. The English people, whose military service is to-day a shining example of efficiency, as the beau-

tiful precision of the Soudan expedition is now proving, have been through it too. The breakdown in the Crimean War led to such terrible results, and the ruthless investigation of it, made necessary by the indignation of England, revealed such a supine incapacity in the administrative departments that the entire army organization was reformed, centralized, and made obedient from top to bottom to the master mind. This is the case with our navy and it must become true of our army.

At the beginning of the Civil War political intrigue and favoritism were the chief causes of our inefficiency. Under Cameron our army was a helpless mass; under Stanton it became a machine capable of direct and powerful action. We cannot with safety to ourselves as a great nation avoid the issue. An efficient army is an absolute necessity to us from this time forward, and the only way to develop an efficient army is to investigate the causes of our failure and take those measures which will make like failures impossible.

Facts are stubborn and instructive. The chief purposes of investigation are not blame and punishment. These are but incidents. The facts are there; they exist. Our common sense compels us to submit to them. We must study them. We must learn the weaknesses and the faults of

men charged with vital duties and of the system which has failed to work.

If it be objected that we disgrace ourselves before the world by exposing our weakness to publicity, the objection will not hold. That we mean to do it, that we shall do it, is the crowning proof of the same manly spirit in our great nation that nerved our brothers before Santiago when they freely offered themselves for all of us. Human flesh shrinks before the keen but kindly knife. The wise man overcomes his dread and the cancer is cut out. The spectacle of this mighty people facing the fruits of an incompetency for which we are all of us in part to blame, for which, and justly, we shall have to pay the costs of war many times over in pensions for disabilities that might have been prevented, will move the nations of the earth not less profoundly than our soldiers' courage or our sailors' deeds.

Far more potent than any printed statement in influencing the inevitable movement of public opinion will be the men who have endured these things, who have survived them, who have been mustered out, and who have returned to those far-scattered farms and villages and towns where they will recite to neighbors who hang upon their words the story of how they served their country and how their country cared for them.

SOME LESSONS OF THE WAR FROM AN OFFICER'S STANDPOINT.

BY JOHN H. PARKER.

(First Lieutenant Thirteenth Infantry, late commanding Gatling gun detachment, Fifth Army Corps.)

IT was a magnificent achievement. With less than 13,000 effective fighting men the Fifth Corps captured in twenty days 28,000 of the enemy, in a fortified city, well provisioned and well equipped with all the munitions of war. It conquered for the United States a territory about equal to that of New England, and drove from the safe shelter of a land-locked, mine-defended harbor a formidable fleet of the enemy, to fall an easy prey to our vigilant and invincible squadron.

In the face of such achievements it seems idle to seek for any lessons bought by sufferings of our own troops. It would seem that the military student should seek in the mismanagement of our adversaries to discover lessons in administration. But we should expect to find in the tactics of the victorious army an object-lesson of

careful reconnoissance, skillful preparation for the attack by energetic artillery fire, prompt support of the troops occupying the captured position, and an early opportunity for the troops exhausted by the charge to rest, reorganize, and recuperate.

The unexpected happened. The feeding of our troops was not well done, the reconnoissance was made after the position was captured, and the exhausted troops who made the charge, instead of being relieved or supported, were compelled to hold on to the captured position, not merely an hour or two, but for seventeen weary days, until slow-moving diplomacy should decide whether or not Santiago, already virtually in our hands, should surrender.

The troops had been ordered to carry three days'

rations, but had not been able to do so, and this fact was well known to everybody; yet it was three days before any food to amount to anything reached the firing line, and a full ration was seldom, if ever, issued to the troops in Cuba. Even after the surrender placed unlimited wharfage at our disposal within two and a half miles of the camps, easily accessible over excellent roads, some one or more articles were always short or missing.

There are, then, some lessons to be learned in regard to administration, not applied by those whose business it was to provide for all contingencies. There is also a very important lesson to be learned from a tactical analysis of the battles of July 1 to 5 and 10 to 11.

THE OLD ROUTINE BREAKS DOWN IN EMERGENCY.

The United States has not had an army since 1866. Fragments of regiments it has had, and in some cases whole regiments. There has been no such thing as a brigade, division, or corps. The isolated fragments were splendid, but there was no opportunity to study the problems of organization and supply on a large scale in a practical way. The usual routine of business gradually became such that not a wheel was turned in the quartermaster's department nor a nail driven without express permission, previously obtained, from the quartermaster-general at Washington. The ordinary repairs, for example, to public property were required to be estimated for from three months to a year in advance. If any energetic officer ventured to disobey this rule, his energy was forthwith diverted into the channels of official explanation of his unapproved action, and it took a vast deal of energy to prevent the money cost of such expenditure of material from being charged against the luckless wight who dared to disregard the official routine.

In the commissary department there was a similar system, and the same remarks apply to all the other staff departments of the army. The administration had become a bureaucracy with everything centralized, because the whole army for thirty years had been administered as one body, without the subdivisions into organizations which are inevitable in war-time.

War became a reality with great suddenness. Those who have grown gray in the service and whose capacity, honesty, and industry have never been nor cannot be impeached found themselves confronted with the problem of handling nearly 300,000 men, and they had no authority to change the system of supply and transportation. The minutest acts of officers of these departments were regulated by laws of Congress, enacted with a view to the small regular force and with

no provisions or modifications for war. In authorizing the formation of large volunteer armies Congress did not authorize any change in the system of administration or make any emergency provision. As before, every detail of supply and transportation had to be authorized from the central head. Is it any wonder that under such extraordinary circumstances as those encountered in Cuba a system designed for peace and 25,000 men weakened in some respects when the attempt was made to apply it to 300,000?

The great wonder is that it did the work as well as it did; and that it did accomplish the work, after a fashion, was due to the superhuman exertions of the chief officers of the supply departments and their able assistants. These men and their subordinates knew no rest. They were untiring and zealous. On their own responsibility they cut the red tape to the very smallest limit compatible with proper care of government property. Instead of regular returns and requisitions, the merest form of lead-pencil memorandum or receipt was sufficient to obtain the needed supplies whenever they were available. This much was absolutely necessary, for these officers were personally responsible for every dollar's worth of supplies and had to protect themselves in some degree. Many of them will find it years before their accounts are finally settled, unless some provision be made by law for their relief. These remarks apply only to conditions after we landed in Cuba.

It can therefore be stated once for all that there was some suffering in Cuba among our soldiers, and that this suffering was caused largely by the conditions under which the campaign was conducted. Some of it might possibly have been averted if Congress had seen fit to lodge a degree of discretionary latitude in the hands of administrative officers; but this was not done. The system was a faulty one, made doubly hard by the hard conditions of the campaign.

HOW THE SYSTEM MUST BE CHANGED.

The lesson to be derived is that we must change the system in certain particulars. We must vest in officers of the supply departments an amount of discretionary power commensurate with the responsibilities they are called upon to face. This means, of course, decentralization. If we are to organize an army of 75,000 or 100,000 men, large enough to be organized into permanent units, then each of these units must be complete in itself for purposes of ordinary administration.

If an officer is capable of being a brigade quartermaster, commissary, or surgeon, for example, then invest him with sufficient discretionary authority to meet emergencies, accept his

certificate that such emergencies exist, and if he does not accomplish the desired results put in some other man who will.

Let each regiment, brigade, and division be as nearly independent as practicable, and then require of its responsible officers efficiency. If it fails to come up to the standard, substitute officers who can do the work. If they fail through neglect, punish them.

The "board of strategy," as an inception, was a fine thing. Its logical sequence is a general staff, such as may be found in other countries, charged with the problems of organization, mobilization, and strategic disposition of all the forces of the United States. But such a body as this would have no more to do with the details of rations, transportation, and tentage than with the tactical maneuvers upon the battlefield. In these the general commanding must be supreme. He must be thoroughly supported, never interfered with, and held accountable for results. His subordinate should know no other or higher authority than his; a decision or order from him must be final and should clear the subordinate of all responsibility except that of prompt compliance.

This idea is the exact converse of the principle of bureaucracy. Under the latter the most competent general may be hampered or even disabled by the opposition, ignorance, or indifference of some subordinate official of a bureau a thousand miles away who is not accountable to him, but to a bureau chief equally opposed to or ignorant of the plans of the general. The benefit of the proposed change of system ought to be fully apparent.

There can be no doubt in the minds of those who know all the facts that most of the hardships and sufferings that the troops had to endure were unavoidable under the conditions. The supply departments labored heroically—after the emergency was upon them. But they were tied by the bonds of preimposed conditions.

COSTLY MISTAKES.

The corps that went to Santiago was virtually the regular army. Every regiment that went to Tampa went there ready for service. Their equipment was just as complete on April 26 as it was on June 6. They wore the same clothing to Cuba that they had brought from Sheridan, Assiniboine, and Sherman. They brought with them their wagons and mules, their tents and camp equipage. There should have been no problems to solve in regard to them, and yet there were many. Owing to delays in the supply departments they wore winter clothing for their service in the torrid zone, and drew sum-

mer clothing there just in time to return to the bracing breezes of Montauk, where, in their enfeebled condition, winter clothing would have been more suitable. When they landed in Cuba their wagons and mules had vanished. Consequently rations, of which there were abundance at Baiquiri, were slow in coming up and were doled out one meal at a time, and short at that. The vegetables spoiled before they got to the men who were suffering for them, and men died for lack of medicines which were abundant only eighteen miles away.

There was over a month at Tampa to foresee all this, and around the tents of company officers it was foreseen and discussed. Why not in the supply departments? Are we to conclude that it was impossible to get beans, rice, and canned fruits enough to take the place of potatoes and onions? That it was impossible in forty days to get summer clothing? There were ten thousand firms in the United States who would have undertaken to provide these things and who would have put them in Santiago itself for a consideration. The only conclusion is that these necessities were not foreseen by the supply departments in time, although they were by the line officers generally. It did not require a prophet to say that vegetables would spoil on transport in the torrid zone; that bacon, hard-tack, and canned roast beef were not a suitable diet alone for campaigning in the tropics; that the winter clothing worn in Michigan winters would be very uncomfortable in the heat of southern Cuba. The reason for these deficiencies must be sought and found unless we are to inflict similar suffering on our soldiers in future.

THE ROOT OF THE EVIL.

Now, it has been a notorious fact for many years that promotions to the supply departments of the army were to be had largely as a result of "influence." In the last thirty years many appointments in them have been made which have had their origin in "pull." Neither party alone is to be blamed for this, for the same conditions have obtained under both Republican and Democratic administrations. In a country where not a postal clerk, mail-carrier, or messenger could be named except for fitness previously determined under competitive examination and civil-service rules, the feeding, clothing, and transportation of our army has been in the hands of departments in which the appointments were often the reward of favorites or put at the disposal of two-penny politicians. In the nature of things would an intelligent public expect such departments to exhibit the forethought, energy, and activity necessary for so great an emergency?

There have been those who have foreseen that these departments would break down under the stress of war. It was not at all unexpected to the line of the army. It has been made the subject of exhaustive articles time and again. But no suggestions tending to simplify business emanated from the departments themselves. There was no scheme worked out by intelligent forethought on their part adapted to successfully cope with emergencies. Those who had entered the coveted honors of these offices were "arrived;" they had no more to hope for, nothing to attain. They never sought to alter the routine or devise ways and means for emergencies. A good corps of competent clerks wrote out their papers, laid them ready for signature on nice office desks, and mailed them afterward. In the fullness of time each one was to arrive at a predetermined and settled rank, not dependent in any way upon any other conditions than health and longevity, after which the fortunate incumbent of a sinecure was to reap the reward of his arduous labors and enter into well-deserved rest. These conditions do not beget that mental and physical activity which foresees and prepares for emergencies or simplifies the doing of business.

They labored with superhuman exertion to meet the conditions when the war had become a fact; but no amount of labor could take the place of intelligent foresight and proper preparation. It is highly to their honor that they succeeded in any degree under such conditions, but it would be well to draw a lesson from this awful stress.

If the sufferings spoken of had been confined to the Fifth Corps it could be said that they were entirely due to the unavoidable conditions of the campaign. But from every side come similar complaints on behalf of troops that never left railroad communications in the very heart of the United States. The unavoidable conclusion is that the whole staff system is faulty. This conclusion is strengthened by the experiences of foreign countries. The principal contributory cause of the French defeat in the Franco-Prussian War was the bureaucracy which hampered army administration. The French learned the lesson and have entirely reorganized the administrative departments of their army. The German system seems to be admirable. Shall ours be brought up to the modern standard in the inevitable reorganization of the army, or shall we still more expand an unwieldy machine, leading to still greater waste and suffering in the future?

MACHINE GUNS IN PLACE OF HEAVY ARTILLERY.

Tactically the war was marked by the total absence of drill maneuvers. The grand tactics of the battle as planned by the general were superb.

The orders issued contemplated effective use of the artillery, which was to open at daylight. The preparation for the assault by artillery fire, however, failed to materialize. The artillery could not live at ranges near enough to see the Spanish trenches nor do effective work upon them at long ranges. It was demonstrated by noon that the modern rifle has moved artillery back on the battlefield to 1,500 yards, while in the days of the Springfield it could work effectively at 600 or 800. Daring attempts were made by Best and Parkhurst to use their batteries at the close ranges, but they could not stand the storm of Mauser bullets and had to retire. At the next available position in rear they could not see their objectives clearly enough to do effective work. The artillery did not even attempt to cover the successful charges, because it could not see the positions of either our own troops or those of the enemy well enough to risk the danger of firing into our own men.

We have in this a tactical lesson of the utmost importance, and one which has already been recognized by foreign governments since July 1. That lesson is that, in the general case, the function of covering the charge, which formerly belonged to the artillery, has ceased to be a possibility for that arm, and that some new device must be sought for that purpose.

It is only another exhibition of American characteristics that with the necessity was developed the proper means to perform the work. Where heavy guns could not go light machine guns could and did; where artillery, with its comparatively slow fire of unaimed fragments, could not live, machine guns, with a fire equivalent each to a regiment of sharpshooters, were a decisive and controlling factor, completely taking the now impossible function of artillery and performing it better than artillery ever did in history—so well, in fact, that not even a score of men were hit during the actual charge upon what was essentially an impregnable position. The heavy losses of the infantry occurred during the deployment by the flank under fire, and not during the actual charge, which was of only eight and one-half minutes' duration and in which there was practically no loss.

A comparison of the losses at San Juan ridge, where the charge was covered by machine-gun fire, with that at El Caney without this aid, but with plenty of artillery, makes the deduction as to the value of machine guns very striking. At El Caney the heavy losses were during the last 500 or 600 yards of the approach to the enemy. At San Juan nearly all of the losses occurred before the 800-yard point was reached, because the machine guns went into action there, drew and

silenced the enemy's fire, while the troops, taking advantage of the moment, were over the intervening ground and upon the hill before the Spaniards realized the situation. This view of the final charge there is supported by all the officers who participated in it and is undoubtedly correct. It is also supported by the testimony of the Spanish officers who survived the dreadful slaughter of that eight and one-half minutes and were captured at the surrender.

But we have learned more than this about machine guns. We found them invaluable as a reserve on the right flank of the left wing while General Lawton was struggling to get into position on our right. The one little battery of machine guns was the only thing there in reserve, and it was held within twenty yards of the firing line. Every one there felt and knew that in any attempt of the enemy to double up our right flank or retake the captured position, he would meet in the fire of these guns a reserve equivalent to at least a brigade of sharpshooters.

In other words, it was possible on these two days to hold the line with every man, holding nothing in reserve but these guns, while waiting for Lawton's countermarch into position, with absolute confidence on the part of everybody on the firing line that the right flank was safe, absolutely safe, against a turning movement. This is a most striking illustration of a hitherto unrecognized value of a heretofore unrecognized arm. We found that the defensive use of the guns in trench on July 10 and 11 was all that the most sanguine had ever claimed for the weapon, and that as support to an outpost a machine gun was invaluable.

It will not be disputed by any one who was there that this campaign has made for these guns a unique place on the battlefield, and that tactics, both minor and grand, must be revised in regard to them. It is not too much to claim—for it was fully demonstrated on the battlefield—that

we have in this campaign developed a new arm, independent of infantry, cavalry, and artillery in the same sense that they are independent of each other and more nearly capable of acting alone than any of them. This much is absolutely demonstrated. It is beyond discussion; is henceforth an axiom of war.

THE DEMAND FOR NEW ORGANIZATION.

But the organization which shall be given to this new arm, like the new organization of our staff and our supply departments, is a problem not yet solved. To the solution of these problems the best energies of all patriotic citizens should be directed. Whether we have willed it or not, whether it is in accord with our institutions or not, Providence has so ordered events that our flag has girdled the globe and will never again witness a sunset. To maintain our footing, to preserve the respect of other nations, to enforce law and order at home and abroad, we shall require not only a powerful navy, but also an efficient and effective army, much larger than the one which has heretofore been sufficient for police duty of the frontiers. In order to have this with due regard to public service it must be the best-organized, best-officered, best-fed, and best-clothed army, as well as the best fighting army, in the world. We can get along with half as large an army of this kind as would be necessary under worse conditions. This argument, based on efficiency and economy, will appeal to every true American, even if national pride and humanity did not point to the same conclusion.

The men who are to construct such an army must be trained soldiers if the desired object is to be accomplished. In such times as these, with the prestige and prosperity of the nation at stake, party politics must give way to patriotism and allow the recommendations of the most competent to govern.



THE FOUNDER OF A PROTESTANT BROTHERHOOD.

BY HENRY S. LUNN, M.D.



REV. THOMAS CHAMPNESS.

THE Rev. Thomas Champness, who is coming to America in the month of October and will spend a week with Mr. D. L. Moody at Northfield, is one of the most striking figures in the religious world of England to-day. For years the problem before those who care for the spiritual welfare of the masses has been how to gain the immense advantages which the Roman Church secures through her preaching fraternities without sacrificing the vital principles of religious enlightenment and freedom. It has been a standing reproach against Protestantism that it could not command the discipline, the obedience, and the self-denial which are placed at the service of the sacerdotal churches by the religious orders. Two men have arisen in our day to wipe away this reproach, William Booth, the general of the Salvation Army, and Thomas Champness, the founder of the Joyful News Mission; and if the name of the latter is at present less widely known, his

work is equally original, and the influence of it on evangelistic methods is likely to be increasingly wide and important. Mr. Champness' workers carry out in practice the three "evangelical counsels" of poverty, chastity, and obedience. They are absolutely under the direction of the head of the mission, they receive from him just the supply sufficient for their wants as they require it, and if they marry they leave the mission. On the other hand, they do not surrender their personal freedom, they are bound by no vows, and the obligation to this self-denying life ceases with the termination of their connection with the work. They move about in the country villages and the slums of the great English cities, among the swamps of West Africa and the Indian bazaars, as poor men with poor men, denying the voice of personal ambition and the craving for the joys of a settled home that they may speak the message which they have from God. Since Wiclif sent forth his "poor priests" to circulate the Word of God among the English peasants there has been nothing quite like it.

No man in England knows "the man in the smock-frock" better than Mr. Champness, but although his immediate ancestors belonged to the working classes, some of the best blood in England flows in his veins, for his pedigree runs back to the old Norman family of Champneys, who "came in with the Conqueror." The call to service came to him early in life. He was only twenty-three when he went out to the fatal shores of West Africa. Here he labored till his health broke down, and here he buried his young wife. In 1864 he entered on the ordinary work of a Methodist preacher in England, and not long after he married the lady who has been his true comrade through the great work of his later life. After a time his special evangelistic gifts caused him to be set apart as district missionary, and he labored successively among the vast working-class populations of Newcastle-on-Tyne and Lancashire. While at Bolton the idea of a half-penny religious weekly occurred to him, and he founded his unique little journal *Joyful News*, which has had from the first such a circulation as to make it a paying property quite apart from advertisements.

The Joyful News Mission arose directly out of

the establishment of the paper, but how that came about Mr. Champness shall tell in his own words.

"It all grew out of *Joyful News*," he said. "When I began to make a little money I felt that it was the Lord's money and I had no right to use it on myself, and so we talked it over, the missus and I, and we determined to try and do something for the villages. We took two men and supported them and trained them as evangelists.

never gone into debt, either. When resources fell off we have reduced our work, and we have been guided by our income as to how many men we should take. We know exactly how much each man costs us. Of course this varies. In some villages they find the man board and lodging and we only have to supply him with clothes. In other places we have to meet all the expenses."

"What check have you on their expenditure when you give them money for expenses?"

"Well, it is this way. I send a man a three-pound check and he sends me back his book with it all accounted for to the last halfpenny. Of course we find extravagance sometimes. Some fellows are very extravagant in physic. It is something awful the money they will spend on blood mixtures. But we know pretty exactly what a man ought to spend."

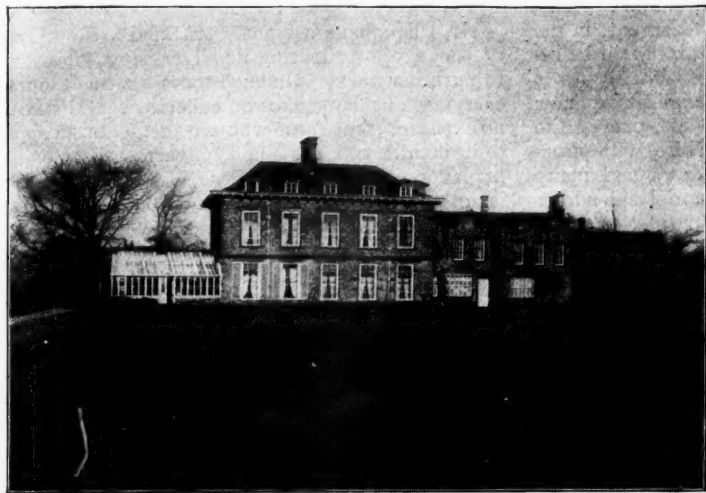
"And when they get married what happens?"

"They leave the mission. They know that before they come. In the few cases where we have employed married men as agents the rule is the same. We give them just what they need for actual expenses. We find that seventy pounds

keeps a man in the mission field for a year. Of course they know that we can send them off at any moment if our funds fall off and we have to cut down the work."

"Do you find a steady demand for these men?"

"The demand exceeds the supply. It is not only for missions, but for their services in ordinary circuits to assist the regular ministers. I keep in touch with the men and correspond with them all every week. I seldom hear of any theological difficulties among them. Strangely enough, such difficulties as crop up seem to be about baptism. Some of our best men have become Baptists and some are in the Baptist ministry. We often find that the men pass from us into the regular ministry of the Church. Looking to the future, when the time comes for me to lay down my work I hope to leave it in the hands of my children. My son William is managing it during my absence in conjunction with his mother, and I hope as time goes on people will feel that they may trust the mission to him and his brothers and sisters."



CASTLETON HALL, ROCHDALE, HOME OF THE JOYFUL NEWS MISSION.

Just at that time there was a mission in Bolton, where we were living, which was not a success; so we sent one of our young fellows there to see what he could do, and he was made a great blessing. This came to the ears of Mr. James Barlow, of Bolton, who had built the Mission Hall and given it to the Connection. He went down there and found everything in full swing, and then he sent word that he was coming to have a cup of tea with me. When he came he said: 'You are on the right lines.' 'Yes,' I said, 'I should like to spread the thing.' Then he said: 'Here's fifty pounds. Spend it and come to me for more when that's done.' So we took a larger house and received eight men, and the work has gone on increasing, and now we have between fifty and sixty men in training. We just took things as they came and had no idea what the work would grow to."

"As to funds," I said, "you seem to go on George Müller's principle."

"I have never asked for money and never made a collection. We have just said what we were doing and left it to the people. I have

Mr. Champness' three sons and three of his four daughters are actively engaged in the mission work. It should be stated that neither Mr. nor Mrs. Champness receives a farthing from the funds of the mission, but Mr. Champness pays one hundred and eighty pounds yearly to the Joyful News Home for the accommodation of himself and his family, besides contributing to the mission from the profits of his newspaper and his literary work generally.

The agents of the Joyful News Mission are now working in every part of the world, and the martyrdom of one of them, William Argent, in the riots at Wusueh, China, in 1891, will still be remembered.

The Training Home for Evangelists is now located at Castleton Hall, Rochdale, one of the old county mansions of Lancashire with *fleur-de-lis* on the stained-glass windows and many other relics of its ancient manorial splendors. Here are received not only the Joyful News missionaries, but men belonging to other organizations

who come for temporary training and help in their vocation. Sixty-nine of these preachers have passed through the home during the past year.

A marked feature of this splendid work is the modesty and unobtrusiveness with which it is carried on. Its founders belong to the race of whom the poet speaks—

"Who did their deed
And scorned to blot it with a name;
Men of the plain heroic creed
That loved Heaven's silence more than fame."

Mr. Champness has never truckled to the spirit of the age by adopting its advertising methods to push his work. On such tours as he is now carrying out he makes no collections and takes no expenses; but those who are fortunate enough to hear him tell the plain, unvarnished tale of his labors in the Joyful News Mission will find it not only a thrilling experience, but also, in the time-honored Methodist phrase, a "means of grace."

THE LIBERAL CONGRESS OF RELIGION.

BY A MEMBER.

THE fifth meeting of the Liberal Congress is to be held this month (October 18-23) in connection with the Trans-Mississippi Exposition at Omaha. The congress is directly a child of the great Parliament of Religions held in Chicago during the Columbian Exposition. Its supporters are made up chiefly of those who believe that the work of that parliament was prophetic—that instead of being a mere incident or accident in the religious history of the world, it was almost or quite the greatest corporate event in the religious history of the race, and that it was more a prophecy than a fruition, the beginning of a new series, the embodiment of a new ideal which is to be increasingly religious in the future.

The initial step for the permanent organization of the spirit of the parliament was taken by Rev. Hiram W. Thomas, pastor of the People's Church, Chicago; Dr. E. G. Hirsch, minister of the leading Jewish congregation in Chicago; Rev. W. S. Crowe, now of New York City; and Jenkin Lloyd Jones, pastor of All Souls' Church, Chicago, who is also editor of *New Unity*. As a result of a meeting of these gentlemen on the fair grounds in the month of June, a circular letter was sent out to such ministers of all denominations as were likely to be at the parliament and interested in such a movement. A meeting was held. Twenty-

five or thirty different ministers attended. A preliminary organization was here effected and a call was drawn up which was subsequently widely signed by seven or eight hundred ministers, prominent educators, and laymen. The first meeting in response to that call was held at Sinai Temple, Chicago, in May, 1894. The meeting was a notable one in point of attendance, public interest, and the character of the speakers. Dr. Momerie, of London, Revs. Mr. Savage, of Boston, Merle St. C. Wright, of New York, and John Faville, pastor of the Congregational church of Appleton, Wis., were among those taking part.

The second meeting a year later was held in the same temple and the interest was sustained. The third meeting, in 1896, was held in Plymouth Church, Indianapolis, and the fourth meeting, a year ago, was held in connection with the Tennessee Centennial Exposition at Nashville. Although the conservative elements of the South, particularly the clergy, arrayed themselves against it, the effect of the meeting was far-reaching and the report of it was a matter of international enterprise on the part of the Associated Press and other prominent newspaper forces in Europe and America.

The character and spirit of the organization cannot be better indicated than by the list of

officers and the "object" as set forth in its charter. The bracketed inscription is inserted for the sake of indicating the theological range of its constituents, although such denominational descriptions do not belong to the spirit of the congress or to the spirit of the men. They appear not in their denominational or theological capacity, but as individuals, citizens of the larger commonwealth, and members of the Church universal. The following is the list:

President, Hiram W. Thomas, D.D., 535 Monroe Street, Chicago (Independent); general secretary, Jenkin Lloyd Jones, 3939 Langley Avenue, Chicago (Independent); treasurer, Leo Fox, Continental National Bank, Chicago (Jewish). Vice-presidents: Col. T. W. Higginson, Cambridge, Mass.; Rev. E. G. Hirsch, Ph.D., Chicago (Jewish); M. J. Savage, D.D., New York City (Unitarian); R. Heber Newton, D.D., New York City (Episcopal); Alfred Momerie, D.D., London, G. B. (Episcopal). Directors: Dr. Paul Carus, Chicago (Independent); Mrs. Henry Solomon, Chicago (Jewish); Rev. Philip S. Moxom, Springfield, Mass. (Congregational); Rev. E. L. Rexford, Columbus, Ohio (Universalist); Edwin D. Mead, Boston; President David Starr Jordan, Palo Alto, Cal.; W. L. Sheldon, St. Louis (Ethical Culture); Rev. Joseph Stolz, Chicago (Jewish); L. J. Duncan, Milwaukee, Wis. (Ethical Culture); E. P. Powell, Clinton, N. Y.; Prof. Nathaniel Schmidt, Ithaca, N. Y.; Rev. F. E. Dewhurst, Indianapolis, Ind. (Congregational); Rev. Caroline Bartlett Crane, Kalamazoo, Mich. (Independent); Rev. J. H. Crooker, Troy, N. Y. (Unitarian); Rev. John Faville, Appleton, Wis. (Congregational); Rev. N. M. Mann, Omaha, Neb. (Unitarian); Rev. I. S. Moses, Chicago (Jewish); Rev. R. A. White, Chicago (Universalist); Rev. W. C. Gannett, Rochester, N. Y. (Unitarian); Rev. Isidore Lewinthal, Nashville, Tenn. (Jewish).

The following is the "object" as stated in the charter:

To unite in a larger fellowship and coöperation such existing societies and liberal elements as are in sympathy with the movement toward undogmatic religion; to foster and encourage the organization of non-sectarian churches and kindred societies on the basis of absolute mental liberty; to secure a closer and more helpful association of all these in the thought and work of the world under the great law and life of love; to develop the church of humanity, democratic in organization, progressive in spirit, aiming at the development of pure and high character, hospitable to all forms of thought, cherishing the spiritual traditions and experiences of the past, but keeping itself open to all new light and the higher developments of the future.

From the beginning the congress has met a large amount of distrust from all quarters. The ministers of the Unitarian and Universalist denominations in the main have held aloof lest it might mean the organization of another liberal

movement which would tend to disintegrate their already rather porous and inadequate organizations. The so-called orthodox ministers have distrusted it lest it might harbor theological heresy in disguise, but notwithstanding this distrust the congress has held the confidence and enthusiasm of its projectors and has slowly won the confidence of those who have distrusted it. The local committee at Omaha includes the rector of the Episcopal church and the pastor of the leading Methodist church. In July the president and general secretary of the congress visited Omaha, and they received the hearty coöperation of these gentlemen and both were heard in the pulpit of the Methodist member of the local committee. Dr. Heber Newton has from the start been one of the most earnest and active supporters of the congress. The same may be said of Dr. Momerie, of London, who is one of the vice-presidents of the congress and a prominent Episcopal clergyman. Colonel Higginson, who is also president of the Free Religious Association, with headquarters at Boston, has been a warm supporter, as has also the organization of which he is president. Rev. Philip Moxom, of the Congregational church of Springfield, Mass., Rev. Washington Gladden, of Columbus, Ohio, Prof. Nathaniel Schmidt, of Cornell University, President David Starr Jordan, of the Leland Stanford University, and Edwin D. Mead, editor of the *New England Magazine*, are among its active supporters.

The programme this month at Omaha will include the names of President David Starr Jordan, of California, Prof. C. Hanford Henderson, of the Pratt Institute, Brooklyn, Rev. Leighton Williams, of New York City, Dr. John Henry Barrows, Rev. Frank Crane (a prominent Methodist pastor), of Chicago, Rev. H. H. Peabody, of Rome, N. Y., Dr. W. S. Rainsford, of New York, E. P. Powell, of Clinton, N. Y., Revs. H. M. Simmons and Marion D. Shutter, of Minneapolis, Dr. E. G. Hirsch, of Chicago, Rev. Robert E. Jones, of Ithaca, Prof. W. H. Council, of Alabama, Rev. R. A. White, of Chicago, Dr. Lewinthal, of Nashville, Tenn., and others. Dr. Jordan and Mr. Simmons will speak on the international problems now upon us; Rev. Frank Crane will speak on "Christ and the Labor Problem;" Dr. Barrows on "The Greater America and Her Mission in Asia;" Professor Gilman, of Meadville, Pa., on "What the Employers Might Do to Settle the Labor Problem;" Rev. S. R. Calthrop, of Syracuse, N. Y., on "The Part Faith Takes in Science."

GLIMPSES OF INDIAN LIFE AT THE OMAHA EXPOSITION.

[The attractiveness of the Trans-Mississippi Exposition has been greatly enhanced by the addition of a feature which was not present during the earlier months of the fair. This feature is the systematic arrangement of a series of Indian encampments, representative, in point of costume, habitation, and otherwise, of the leading tribes of red men that survive in the great West. In many other ways the closing weeks at Omaha will have especial attractions. The sketch of Indian life on the fair grounds which we present herewith appeared the other day in the *Nebraska City Conservative*. It seems to us well worthy of reproduction. The illustrations which accompany it are all of them from photographs taken and copyrighted by Mr. F. A. Rinehart, the official photographer of the exposition.—THE EDITOR.]

THE exhibit of the Indian congress at the Trans-Mississippi Exposition is doubly interesting, in that on the one hand it is the first representative gathering ever attempted of our swiftly passing forerunners in our continental arena, and on the other it is something genuine in a wilderness—a howling wilderness—of Mid-way fakes. There is howling within that fence, but it is the utterance of savage man forgetting himself; there are no doubt points not altogether true to the red man's home customs, but imposture and extortion have no place there.

The grounds are opened to the public at 8 o'clock in the morning. One who enters the Indian inclosure for the first time at that hour is likely to feel some bashfulness. He is alone with the savages and their white custodians. He sees tents, fires, family groups, domestic business going on; here are three young squaws sitting on the grass, combing their hair, which hangs in a mop, glossy black, all around their heads; it is very thick and heavy and must be ample protection from cold. Each one holds her comb in a full grip, like a chopping-knife, and combs by main strength. The grass is wet with dew and the day is plainly not yet well under way. One feels that he is hardly welcome thus early among the tents.

Along the north fence are the white quarters, with the offices. There is a gathering in front of one building and bright colors catch your eye. A glance shows that distribution of rations is the attraction. It is the women and old men, with some of the children, who are waiting there. Each one, after some formality, departs soberly, with an armful of flat loaves most conspicuous in his burden. Nearly every woman has a child erect on her back, held there in some way by her shawl; some of the youngsters tower above their mothers' heads. Three young men, early afoot, stand apart, tall and handsome in red and yellow, and look on for the most part in silence. Some workmen are at repairs up a ladder and one playfully menaces the other with a hatchet; a grunt of appreciation runs through the group below.



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A CHIEF OF THE ASSINIBOINÉS.

INDIAN DIGNITY.

Two stately old men pass by wrapped in their blankets. Salute their evident dignity and they will bow gravely in return, and as often as they meet you thereafter. Their eyes are very alert and their faces, though grim, are by no means unfriendly.

Small banners before each group of tents make known what tribe inhabits them. To the east,



AN OMAHA BRAVE, AGED EIGHT HOURS.

and apparently detached from the main camp, lie Assiniboines. One brave is about already, sitting in the wet grass, working at a slender stick; three lads stand watching him; for a guess he is making a bow.

The air is filled with wood smoke. Every camp has its fire and you are always getting to leeward of one or other of them. Another smell is everywhere and you soon trace it to the cooking. You can only guess what ingredients go to the stews that are in preparation. The fires are of basswood sticks, long and heavy, about three to each fire; they are so managed that only one end burns, and that end is kept thrust up to the boiling pot. There is only a tiny blaze, but it is continuous and gives out little heat. This is not wasted, but goes, together with the smoke, to cure certain strips of meat that lie on a frame of withes some four feet from the ground.

Here is a sample installation: A pole is fixed at a proper distance above the fire and three or four of the white man's tin pails, with lids, are suspended from it, all steaming, while in the



A GROUP OF BLACKFEET.

middle hangs the main pot, easily capable of holding a small dog, full nearly to the brim of some liquor, with an intermediate mass of meat rising above it in the center. Near by the owners are at breakfast. A dozen bucks, squatting in a circle in the grass, are served by their obedient women, who go and come between them and the fire.

And what is this brought out from the adjacent lodge to be hung upon a conveniently projecting pole-end? A rounded board some 30 x 14 inches, covered and enlaced by closely wound strips of cloth, from which rises the brown face of a tiny Indian. Probably the baby that was born yesterday, whose mother thus puts him out of the way while she attends to breakfast. He cries, however, as a white child thus would do, and is taken down and handed about, board and all, among the young girls of the tribe.

A MYSTERY.

In this camp stands a tepee which is tightly closed and remains so through the day. From it



A BAND OF JICARILLA APACHES.



A BAND OF SIOUX.



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POOR DOG AND FAMILY (SIOUX).

issues a jingling, accompanied now and then by a thumping on some kind of a drum. You are left to your own agreeable surmises as to the nature of the ceremonial going on within, for this idyllic resort is yet innocent of guides and book-boys.

Your attention is caught by an old woman kneeling under a tree rubbing and twisting something between her hands. Is she cleaning fish with her thumbs? She pauses to put a big water pail to her mouth, but not for drink. The water is spurted out again in repeated jets over what she has in her hands, which you presently make out to be a small moccasin.

This may be the wearer sitting before the lodge door, with stolid, fat face uplifted to yours. As you smile at her, confusion overcomes the small savage and the brown face disappears forward into the grass.

The day is advancing and little Indians are seen lingering, as if wishfully, about the pond that has been dug in the center of the village, but seems to be reserved for the washing of clothes. You will seldom find it without some of the women kneeling on the edge scrubbing and wringing some more or less dingy garments. As the heat increases the skirts of the tepees are caught up, and the breeze and the visitor's curi-

ous glance penetrate their privacy together. Here is a chattering group about a squaw, who has a youngster between her knees and is hunting through the jungle of his hair with destroying thumb and finger. Here in the tents of the Omahas is a noble warrior of large frame lolling in the shade like a Homeric hero. As you halt to view him he averts his expressionless face and stretches his hand toward the puppy, very fat and woolly, that is scratching himself among the blankets. The little dog runs joyously to tumble over by the side of the chief, who feels his fat back and sides in a critical way, and there is room to doubt whether the puppy has so much ground as he may think for being content with himself. A schoolmaster-looking young man is authority for the statement that a dog was killed here yesterday.

TEPEE CHARACTERS.

Meantime the Assiniboinés have raised a new tepee, a fine one, covered with deerskin, tightly sewed and stretched tight as a drum. It has a red band around it near the top, from which creatures with claws seem to wriggle down toward the ground. Every camp has one fine lodge painted with totem signs, but most of them



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CHIEF GOES TO WAR (SIOUX).

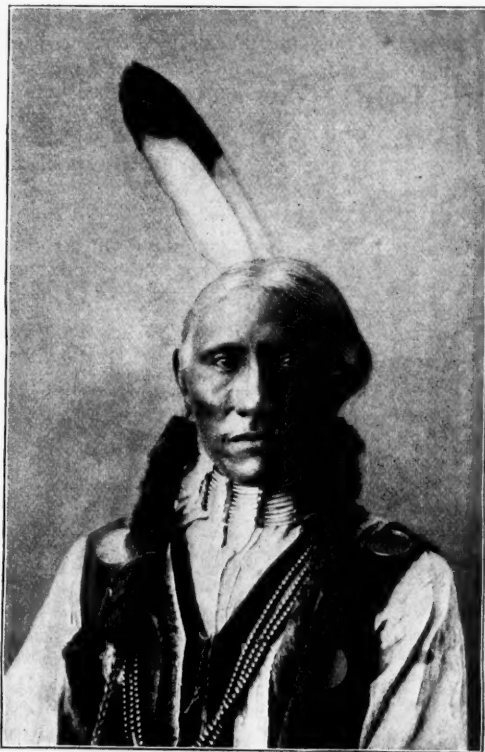
are of muslin, whose blue Massachusetts imprint shows that Nebraska City starch has gone to its making up. There is another kind of hut quite common, a little arbor of bent boughs, covered either with muslin or with close reed mats, these mats not being woven with a warp, but each reed pierced and the cord passed through it.

The tepee is not long a-building, for the women understand that kind of thing, and now a superb warrior, one of the fierce-looking red-and-yellow three, sets up a ladder against it, upon which he courteously, but without hesitation, mounts himself to put on some finishing touches. Up likewise there goes a roaring and a cry from a little Indian wearing a shirt, who is for some reason struck with dismay at that sight, but he is picked up and kissed by the females and his mother wipes his face with the flat of her hand into the bargain, winding up with his upper lip. It must be admitted that there was room there for improvement. Many of the Indians, big and little, seem to be afflicted with catarrh.

SOME INDIANS WORK.

Others of the young men do not disdain work. One is splitting a piece of wood with an axe. He swings the axe left-handed and the stick is not split in the time he remains in sight. And here are two digging a hole with a spade. This, too, goes slowly, for they take about as much time to relieve each other as they do to dig. And one was seen to go off toward Florence the other day with his squaw to get lodge-poles. The woman cut the poles and dragged them home, but he showed her the place.

By this time the whole population is on foot and a goodly number of visitors have strolled in from the main fair, the discords of which now and then break in on our peaceful remoteness, for we feel ourselves far away, either in time or on the map. Stately chiefs stroll up and down,



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WHITE BUFFALO (CHEYENNE).

great, imposing-looking men. Most striking countenances are seen among them, faces like bronze masks. They have blankets, feathers, beads, shells, and claws; each costume is a picture and a study. The men are more picturesque than the women, most of them having large earrings; some of them wear silver medals as big as stove-lids. Many of the elders carry turkey-feather fans, and the most incomprehensible old hats are found surmounting figures of Roman senators. But the women are worth looking at, too. They wear most wonderful moccasins and are sometimes covered with bracelets, brass rings, and other valuables. Here are three lads with bows and arrows shooting at roots; they work hard at it, but don't appear to hit very often. Everybody here is picturesque. One boy has a red handkerchief over his head, his face painted yellow, and wide yellow buckskin breeches with farmer-boy suspenders. They are not so savage as they look. Say "Hello!" to them as they run past and they shout back "Hello!" A short "Howgh!" as deep in your throat as you can get it, is, however, the



A BAND OF CHIPPEWAS.

usual salutation, but even this you can't always count on. Two young bucks in full paint, passing by on a run, respond to a solemn "How" with a friendly "Good-morning." And here is a tepee with a bicycle leaning by its entrance, and there is an Indian brass band, which the white policemen seem to think the feature of the congress.

A SIOUX SÉANCE.

Here now is something genuine. On the grass before an out-of-the-way lodge in the Sioux sec-



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SPIES WITH THE ENEMY (CROW).

tion sit half a dozen of the elders in a circle, stern-visaged old warriors, paying no heed to the curious passer. They are doing something, but what it is is beyond unaided conjecture. There is no sound from them save an occasional grunt, but their hands are in motion. They hold up one, two, three fingers, point upward and downward, and chop at each other as if counting. Is it prayer, perhaps, or merely conversation?

They don't talk much, these old Indians, but their sign-language is developed to a point that is incredible until you see what they do with it.

You wonder at not being importuned to buy anything at quadruple price. There appears to be no merchandise offered, but if this happens to

be the one part of the fair of which you would like to have a relic you may, after some inquiry, be directed to an inconspicuous tepee, where you are told you may find something if you are lucky. Stooping at its entrance, you find that you are intruding upon a silent conclave. Four or five of the serious old men and a couple of old women are sitting around on the blankets. All their eyes are upon you, but nobody stirs. You say "How," they say "How." No opposition being made, you enter and seat yourself in the opening of the circle. They are smoking—that is, each in turn is taking a few pulls at the long, heavy-handled pipe. It is not offered to you, but if you signify a willingness to partake it will be gravely passed to you. You can proceed to business whenever you like. If it is moccasins you want you can easily signify that; there is a grunt here and there, and presently there will appear from somewhere a pair that you will probably find, when you get home, fit you exactly. Payment is easy. You offer a suitable assortment of coins to the nearest warrior, and he picks out the right ones, which will come to about one-third of what you expected to pay if you have ever bought such things of a dealer. Then, if you have behaved yourself well, he will shake hands with you into the bargain and you can withdraw; and you needn't expect him to wrap up your purchase.

NEW ARRIVALS.

By far the most curious feature of this day is the arrival of a band of new-comers, Flatheads from Montana. They appear marching by twos from the gate in the southwest corner, two exposition officials in front, not looking very glad, and in the rear the wildest-looking old savage on the grounds, having a long fringe of reddish hair hanging all around his head, from which it stands



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A WINNEBAGO CAMP.

out some six inches. This it afterward appears is not his own hair, but purely decorative. He is a very respectable chief and a judge in his nation, and has been to Washington. The line is halted by the wash-houses on the south side, and immediately there begins a running froin all parts of the grounds of braves hastening up to shake hands with the newly arrived. Your suspicions are aroused and you think they perhaps have not been parted very long, but Heaven at this point sends a man with a badge on his hat, who has lived among them and knows their language, and he says that not only were they all strangers until they met here, but that many of them are of tribes that have been hostile time out of mind. So you turn again to watching them, with the little knot of visitors that has collected. Some telephone linemen have come down from their poles and joined the group, and on come the welcoming braves, Foxes, Blackfeet, Chippewas, Brule-Sioux, Winnebagoes, the young men running, the old men pacing soberly up in their utmost pomp, and each one goes down the line, giving a "Howgh!" and a hand-shake at every step. "Look at 'im, would ye?" we say. "Think he'll shake hands with the squaws?" But the next is a chivalrous brave, who gives the little Flathead women the same welcome as their husbands. These are not so noble-looking a lot as some of the Sioux, for instance. The men are rather young and grin like Chinamen, as if they were being tickled in the ribs, but no smile visits



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THREE FINGERS (CHEYENNE).

the old judge in the rear; his eyes dodge watchfully about behind his fringe of horsehair.

PREPARING CAMP.

We follow the Flatheads, who have been marched to the spot assigned to them. By good management on somebody's part their tent-poles, baggage, and other impedimenta are on the ground as soon as they are. Two tepees are already up. A young squaw is sitting on a pile of blankets with a cheerful six-months' baby sputtering and twisting about her feet, while the bucks stand around, still receiving civilities and grinning. Two of them produce beautiful war-clubs armed with short polished black horns. "Buffalo?" asks an investigating Indian, and an affirmative grunt being given the clubs are handed about with much curiosity. It would seem as if the native name for that vanished creature must have



JOE, SIOUX INTERPRETER, AND FAMILY.

been forgotten ; indeed, the younger men must know him only by tradition.

An active little squaw in blue blanket skirt and neat leggings is setting up the third tepee. She takes the three longest poles and ties them together near the small end ; it is then easy for two people to set them up into a tripod, in the crotches of which the tops of the other poles rest. The covering is then drawn around the whole, an opening being left low down on one side. The hole in the top around the poles seems not to be sufficient for ventilation, for a slit is left running down for several feet from it, with long flaps standing up, which are carefully held open by poles coming up from the opposite side of the tent ; the lower ends of these poles being set in the earth or in holes in a heavy log of wood.

Our little squaw is working at it single-handed, and lets the whole thing tumble over two or three times, laughing like mad every time. Then she comes up to where a party of bucks are sitting on a pile of poles and begins pulling one of them out without ceremony. The bucks jump up with alacrity and pay no attention.

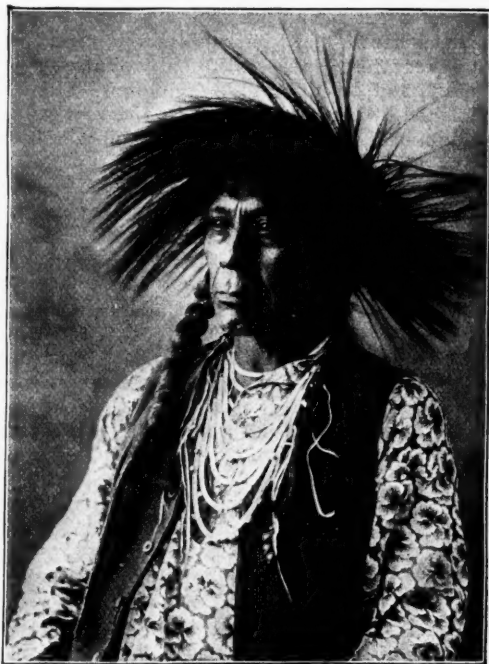
A SOCIABLE TIME.

Meantime the terrible old judge is receiving visitors, no other than the three gorgeous chiefs in red and yellow from the Assiniboine camp. They have come last and in great state. After a "Howgh" and a hand-shake they all gather



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A MOJAVE APACHE.



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A FLATHEAD.

their robes about them and sit down upon the ground. The head man of the visitors opens the conversation with an inquiring wave of his hand toward the judge, out over the landscape and upward, meaning plainly, "How far have you come?" The judge's eyes are fixed intently on the others. He answers by describing rapidly with outstretched fingers two of the sun's circuits through the heavens. Then the dialogue becomes too intricate for the outsider, but the Indians themselves seem never at fault for an instant.

There they sit, visiting in the politest and friendliest way, and all trying very hard to be good Indians for the time being ; but something in the rigid set of their features and the roll of their fierce eyes suggests irresistibly that those three young warriors would like very much to be at that old judge's throat.

We look at this Indian congress as a spectacle, but who can tell what it may mean to the Indians themselves in the way of patching up old feuds, of which no man knows anything outside of their own tribes? But is history ever likely to be written from the Indian's standpoint?

It would perhaps be curious to know how things look to a man who is an American of a hundred generations and sees the world from



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AN ASSINIBOINE.



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TURNING EAGLE (SIOUX).



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A. B. UPSHAW, INTERPRETER (CROW).

behind copper-colored eyelids, but who has a father's love for his children and a statesman's concern for his people.

PERMANENT VALUE OF THE CONGRESS.

This gathering of Indians at Omaha has a unique significance. As "Octave Thanet" remarks in the October *Cosmopolitan*, there is something dramatic in this idea of a great meeting of a vanishing race. Dr. Albert Shaw, writing in the *Century*, pronounces the so-called "congress" by far the most picturesque and distinctive feature of the exposition, though in his opinion the word "encampment" would have better described the fact than the word "congress."

We quote a few sentences from the *Century* article which set forth the serious purpose and bearings of this department of the exposition:

"The managers of the exposition had perceived the desirability of bringing representative groups of Indians from all the principal tribes, and placing them on the exposition grounds in such wigwams or other habitations as were strictly characteristic of the particular tribe. In or near those habitations the Indians were to be occupied with the industries originally practiced

by them, whether weaving, carving, basket-making, arrow-shaping, or otherwise. This gathering of Indians was not to partake in any sense of the character of the Midway diversions or the Wild West shows. It was, on the contrary, to be carried out under the auspices of the Government's Indian Bureau, with the aid of the ethnologists of the Smithsonian Institution. The greatest care was to be taken that every tribe should be costumed, not after the later manner in government blankets, blue calico, and the supplies furnished by the Indian Bureau, but in the fashion of the tribe in its previous state of independence. Characteristic dances and ceremonies of various sorts were to be given.

"Thus it happens that the Indian congress was to afford the last opportunity, presumably, to see the red man in his primitive glory and in his various tribal divisions, under correct conditions of dwelling, costume, industry, and ceremonial. It is entirely safe to predict that in the later weeks of the exposition period, particularly through the month of October, the assemblage of Indians will have attracted not only national, but world-wide attention as the most unusual feature of an exposition interesting for many other reasons."

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

CRITICISMS OF THE SANTIAGO CAMPAIGN.

AMONG the articles on the Santiago campaign now appearing in the magazines are several which comment unfavorably on the management. As this is a subject of great public interest, and these criticisms are published in American periodicals of the highest standing and responsibility, they cannot be ignored by this REVIEW in its monthly survey of current literature. It is, of course, fully understood that the REVIEW in no way makes itself responsible for such opinions as may be expressed in articles from which we may make quotations.

Perhaps the most noteworthy of these criticisms is that by Mr. Richard Harding Davis, which appears in the October number of *Scribner's*. Mr. Davis is outspoken in his complaints, and his article is by no means pleasant reading for such good Americans as wish to think that just the right things were done to insure the success of our troops with the smallest possible sacrifice of life.

For example, Mr. Davis asserts that the wooded basin which lies before the hill of San Juan was never properly reconnoitered before our advance was made:

"The temper of the young officers was keen for just such adventure. Any number of them were eager to scout, to make actual surveys of the trails leading to Santiago, to discover the best cover and the open places, where the fords crossed the streams, and the trails which flanked the Spanish trenches. But their services were not required. Major-General Chaffee seems to have been the only officer who acquainted himself with that mile and a half of unknown country into which, on July 1, the men were driven as cattle are chased into the chutes of the Chicago cattle-pen. His rank permitted him to take such excursions on his own responsibility, but there were hundreds of other officers who would have been glad of a like opportunity, and there were, in the Rough Riders' regiment alone, several hundred men who for years had been engaged in just that work, scouting and trailing. But the only reconnaissance the officers were permitted to make was to walk out a mile and a half beyond the outposts to the hill of El Poso and to look across the basin that lay in the great valley which leads to Santiago. The left of the valley was the hills which hide the sea. The right of the valley was the hills in which nestles the village of El Caney. Below El Poso, in the basin, the dense green forest stretched a mile and a half to

the hills of San Juan. These hills looked so quiet and sunny and well kept that they reminded one of a New England orchard."

The Spaniards were busily at work digging trenches in plain view of El Poso hill, and in the village of El Caney they were indulging in what Mr. Davis terms "street parades," but they were not interrupted by our artillery.

"For four days before the American soldiers captured the same rifle-pits at El Caney and San Juan, with a loss of two thousand men, they watched these men diligently preparing for their coming, and wondered why there was no order to embarrass or to end these preparations."

THE ADVANCE ON SAN JUAN.

Mr. Davis admits that it is an easy task to criticise the conduct of a campaign after it is finished, to show how Santiago should have been taken after it has been taken; but he asserts that it was well understood among the general officers of experience how the approach to the city should be made, and that the fatal results of the course actually pursued by our troops were foreseen:

"Five days before the battle of San Juan General Chaffee, in my hearing, explained the whole situation and told what should be done and foretold what eventually happened if certain things were left undone. It was impossible, he said, for the army, without great loss, to debouch from the two trails which left the woods and opened on the country before the San Juan hills. He suggested then that it would be well to cut trails parallel with the entire front of the wood and hidden by it, and with innumerable little trails leading into the open, so that the whole army could be marched out upon the hills at the same moment.

"Of course, the enemy knows where those two trails leave the wood," he said; "they have their guns trained on the openings. If our men leave the cover and reach the plain from those trails alone they will be piled up so high that they will block the road." This is exactly what happened, except that instead of being led to the sacrifice through both trails the men were sent down only one of them, and the loss was even greater in consequence. This is recorded here because even if the general in command did not know what to do, it is satisfactory to remember that we had other commanders there who did, with less political influence, but with greater military intelligence."

GENERAL SHAFTER'S RESPONSIBILITY.

It is here that Mr. Davis reaches the main point of his criticism of General Shafter, who, he says, saw the field of the battle of San Juan only once before the fighting took place.

"That was on June 29, when he rode out to El Poso Hill and surveyed the plain below. He was about the last officer in his army corps to climb that hill and make this survey, and he did not again go even that far to the front until the night after the battle, and he did not see the trenches for days after the battle had taken place. His trip to El Poso, which was three miles distant from his headquarters, was apparently too much for his strength, and the heat during the ride prostrated him so greatly that he was forced to take to his cot, where he spent the greater part of his stay in Cuba before the surrender. On the day after the battle of San Juan he said hopelessly to a foreign *attaché*: 'I am prostrate in body and mind.' He could confess this to a stranger, and yet, so great was the obstinacy, so great the vanity and self-confidence of the man, that although he held the lives and health of thirteen thousand soldiers in his care, he did not ask to be relieved of his command."

Mr. Davis says that General Shafter's remaining in the rear was undoubtedly due to physical disability and to the fact that he was ill and in pain. The offense with which Mr. Davis charges him is simply that of clinging to authority after he was incapacitated.

HOW WAS SANTIAGO TAKEN?

As to the actual results of the campaign as conducted, Mr. Davis says:

"The unthinking answer which is invariably made to every criticism on General Shafter is that, after all, he was justified in the end, for he did succeed—he was sent to Cuba to take Santiago and he took Santiago. He did not take Santiago. His troops, without the aid they should have received from him of proper reconnaissance and sufficient artillery, devotedly sacrificed themselves and took the hills above Santiago with their bare hands, and it was Admiral Cervera who, in withdrawing his guns which covered the city, made a present of it to the American army. It must not be forgotten that the departure of Cervera's fleet removed Santiago's chief defense and the cause of Shafter's coming to Cuba as well. The American people cannot have forgotten Shafter's panic-stricken telegram of July 2, when he said that our lines were so thin that he feared he might have to withdraw from the position his men had taken. It came like a slap in the face to every one who believed



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MR. RICHARD HARDING DAVIS WITH COL. THEODORE ROOSEVELT.

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Santiago was already ours. Nor can they have forgotten that on the very next day Cervera, having preferred to take a desperate chance to save his fleet rather than remain on guard before the city, and having withdrawn, Shafter no longer cabled of retreat, but demanded surrender. The admirers of Shafter, if such there be, answer to this: 'Yes, but Cervera would not have left the harbor if Shafter had not arrived and captured the hills above the city.'

To this Mr. Davis rejoins that General Shafter's plan of attacking the city caused terrible and needless loss of life before it was abandoned, that it was finally disregarded by the generals at the front, and that the battle of San Juan was won without him, "for he did not see the battle of San Juan nor direct the battle of San Juan, nor was he consulted by those who did."

Another Criticism.

In *Harper's* for October Mr. Caspar Whitney writes on the Santiago campaign, and while his remarks have less of a personal application than those of Mr. Davis, the tone of hostile criticism in portions of his article is hardly concealed. Concerning the main plan of attack he says:

"The plan was to fall upon Caney with one infantry division, while the artillery at El Poso opened against San Juan and the Thirty-third Michigan Volunteers made a demonstration against Agnadores, south several miles, on the sea. Having taken Caney, the forces there engaged were to sweep west, join the other troops, and the entire army was then to make a combined and vigorous attack upon San Juan and the entire ridge before Santiago. It was uncommonly obliging of us to direct our attack upon San Juan, the very strongest point of the Spanish line, and to storm the face of the very ridges where the enemy had been industriously digging trenches since our arrival in the province. The Spaniards confidently expected us to march boldly against their all but impregnable front, instead of against their comparatively weak flanks—and we did not disappoint them.

"Those who planned this attack fully expected the American troops would march into Santiago the first day (July 1) of the fighting. And so indeed they might, and at a much less loss of life than finally attended them, had the artillery figured more prominently in the fighting, had the engagement on our left not been precipitated by absence of reconnoissance immediately before San Juan, and had there been no balloon ascension to reveal our presence and position to the enemy. There was brilliant work, magnificent work, on July 1, but it was done by the soldiers and the line officers."

CARE OF THE WOUNDED.

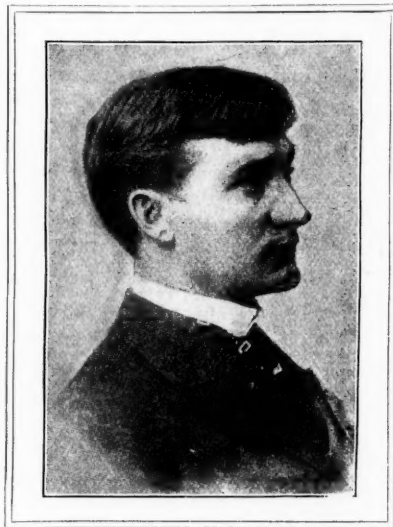
Regarding the care of the troops after the fighting at San Juan and El Caney Mr. Whitney says:

"The days following the cessation of hostilities were days of suffering and work and wonderment—suffering by the wounded, hauled to the rear in great, lumbering, six-mule wagons; work by the troops, who continued industriously to strengthen trenches and build bomb-proofs to protect the reserves from Spanish shrapnel; wonderment by all that now, with transportation facilities increased by wagons, no other rations than bacon, hard-tack, and coffee were brought up for the wounded—not to mention the well; wonderment that hospital supplies were so limited and arrangements so wretched; that wounded and fever-stricken men were permitted to sleep on the rain-soaked ground, with abundant brush and bamboo all around and unemployed soldiers enough to build beds for all; that inasmuch as a bombardment of Santiago was proposed, the siege guns remained on the transports; wonderment that the refugees at Caney were permitted to come about the camps, with the excellent chance of spreading fever."

BLUNDERING INCOMPETENCE.

Mr. Whitney's catalogue of the blunders at Santiago is about as long as Mr. Davis':

"It might not inappropriately be called a campaign of blunders. First of all was the infirmity of purpose at Washington; then the choice of Tampa, utterly unsuitable to be either a point of mobilization or departure—its one railroad track was blocked for miles and for days with the sup-



MR. CASPAR WHITNEY.

plies for which the troops were waiting at Tampa. The quartermaster deficiencies alone would fill a book—deficiencies so glaring as to make one stare—the lack of system in loading transports, which made confusion in the unloading; separation of articles that should be together; mixing of hospital supplies with general merchandise; and the storing deep in the holds of the transports things wanted first, while things not wanted were heaped on top.

"There were incompetent officials in plenty—but how could it be otherwise when we consider the attitude of our Government toward the army for the last thirty years? Not in the memory of the present generation of officers had there before been an assembling of the army—nor even maneuvers in divisions or corps. Distributed throughout the country, broken up for post and garrison duty, what else but confusion and blundering could be expected to ensue when quartermasters and others who had never seen more than fragments were called upon for swift and systematic handling of large bodies of men?

For years the Government has cut the army into fragmental duty, scattered its staff organization, denied it facilities for corps drill and its staff experience in transportation, refused to keep reserve stock of munitions, equipment, etc. And suddenly, when called on to exhibit all these, naturally we have incompetent and floundering officials. Some excuse can be found for the individuals, but none for the Government.

"Officers were needed at the outbreak of the war who had proved their ability to think clearly and act quickly, who had had experience in organization. Some of these were at hand, notably Generals Miles, Merritt, Brooke, and Wheeler, and one of these should have led us to Santiago. The general who did lead us, through no especial fault of his, except that of being a friend of the Secretary of War, found himself overwhelmed by the scope of an undertaking beyond anything he had ever known. Perhaps the greatest blunder was arming volunteers with Springfield rifles shooting one thousand yards and burning black powder, to fight against Spanish rifles shooting over two thousand yards and burning smokeless powder. This was not a blunder; it was criminal."

Mr. Whitney is enthusiastic in his praise of one branch of the service—the mule-train packers: "The monthly wage of those packers was probably only a few dollars; mayhap, along with the correspondents, they were even classed as 'mere ship's stores' by the commanding general; but the accomplishments of that train, only half the size it should have been, were enormous. I saw nothing of the kind to equal it during the campaign. I have never seen such extraordinary efforts anywhere by men and mules. Literally, the army would have starved but for the indefatigable labors of those packers—and the only reward I heard of their receiving was curses from headquarters and fever from exposure and overexertion."

General Shafter at the Critical Moment.

In the October *McClure's* Mr. Stephen Bonsal gives a version of General Shafter's part in the transactions following the San Juan fight which is distinctly favorable to the commanding officer.

It will be remembered that Mr. Davis attributed Shafter's demand for the surrender of Santiago to Cervera's action in leaving the harbor. Mr. Bonsal shows, on the other hand, that the demand was made before the fleet sailed. He describes the conference of general officers, at which General Shafter presided, held to decide the momentous question whether the positions won at such fearful cost should be held or a withdrawal ordered:

"Fortunately, what occurred here has been set down in black and white and forms a part of the military history of our country. Fortunately, I say and repeat, because nothing was said at this conference which does not reflect the highest honor upon those who spoke. The general officers when summoned were informed that each, commencing with the junior officer, would be given full opportunity to express his views upon the question of the advisability of retaining or withdrawing from the advanced position held by our troops. As all the world knows, it was decided to hold the heights we had gained with so much bloodshed. It would seem of little importance to set forth the particular views of particular general officers. It would also be unfair and unwise to point out to our blind hero-worshippers those who spoke for retreat and those who were for holding the position, because both were inspired by the same conscientious sense of duty, and the man who was strongest in favor of withdrawing was the man who, without wishing to make invidious comparisons, had perhaps been most instrumental in capturing the position.

"It is only fair to General Shafter, however, to state exactly what his attitude at this critical



MR. STEPHEN BONSAI.

moment was. The news that our men had captured the San Juan Heights on the afternoon of the 1st filled him with anything but unalloyed satisfaction: first, because of the heavy loss incurred, and, secondly, because it did not appear that we were now one step nearer completing the investment of the town and cutting off the garri- son from reinforcements. But upon the morning of the 2d and later as the day wore on, whatever inclination General Shafter may have had the evening before to withdraw had vanished. And to the various statements from responsible officers that were made, setting forth and proving that our position was most uncomfortable and preca-

rious, General Shafter answered that he did not doubt for a moment that this was true, but that he was of the opinion that the enemy's position was even more uncomfortable and unsafe, and that he believed we had better hang on. The conference came to an end by General Shafter announcing that he had decided to demand, in the morning, the surrender of the city, and his letter to this effect was then and there drafted, before the slightest intimation of the sailing of Cervera's fleet had been received."

ENGINEERING LESSONS OF THE WAR.

MR. HIRAM S. MAXIM writes in the *Engineering Magazine* on "Engineering Lessons from the Hispano-American War." The main point emphasized in Mr. Maxim's article is the vital importance of mechanical supremacy as a factor in modern naval success. The Spaniards, lacking this supremacy, suffered defeat. It was not that they lacked ships or guns of the best modern construction. It was in the ability to make use of the ships and the guns that their fatal deficiency lay. On this point Mr. Maxim says:

"The Spaniards were able to purchase some of the best cruisers in the world. They were also able to provide themselves with a considerable number of torpedo boats and torpedo-boat destroyers. Several of these were made in England. The machinery in them was of the highest order known to modern steam engineers. The Spaniards were also able to purchase excellent guns and ammunition. The Americans, on the other hand, built their own ships and made their own guns, and the very fact that they were obliged to do this gave them the necessary skill in their management afterward. Five or six large cruisers which Spain had at the beginning of the war were supposed to make from twenty to twenty-one knots per hour. Now, in order to make this speed it was necessary that the hulls should be clean and smooth, that the boilers and grates should be clean, that the coal should be of good quality, and that the engines should be of the highest degree of efficiency. Had these ships been in the hands of engineers such as may be found in England, the United States, or Germany, they doubtless would have developed a speed very nearly equal to that claimed for them. When, however, they were taken possession of by the Spanish engineers, everything apparently was neglected. The hulls were allowed to become foul and the boilers to get completely out of order; the engines did not receive the proper care; the stokers did not possess suf-

ficient skill to keep up the steam pressure; hence instead of twenty to twenty-one knots they could make but fourteen or fifteen."

All Europe believed, at the outbreak of the war, that the Spanish cruisers could run away from the American battleships and outfight the American cruisers. It was thought that the Spaniards would surely have the advantage for five or six months at least. In Paris there was much talk about the certain annihilation of the American fleet and the bombardment of New York and Boston by the Spaniards.

THE CASE OF THE "GLOUCESTER."

When the test finally came at Santiago, however, it was found that only one of the Spanish ships, the *Colon*, was able to go faster than our battleships, and, as Mr. Maxim expresses it, the cruisers of Cervera's fleet "very soon found themselves paired off with American ships fast enough to be able to choose their own range. By taking advantage of the superior skill of the American gunners at long range, the Americans were able to annihilate the Spanish fleet in a short time, with practically no loss to themselves. But it may be said that the American battleships were infinitely stronger than the Spanish cruisers. This certainly cannot be said in regard to the triangular fight between the two powerful Spanish torpedo-boat destroyers and the little American yacht *Gloucester*. Sidney Low, writing in the *Pall Mall Gazette*, after speaking of the total destruction of the Spanish fleet with practically no loss on the part of the Americans, points out that the determining factor is the man who fires the gun, the man who wings the torpedo on its way, the man who pulls the lever in the engine-room, the man who has the nerve and skill to use the ram. If he is not capable and resolute, all the rest is nothing."

The *Gloucester*, as every one knows, was a lightly built yacht, turned into a warship merely by the mounting of a few six-pounders and three-pounders on her decks, while the two destroyers were supposed to represent the latest results of modern naval architecture. Built in English dockyards, they were supposed to have a speed of twenty-eight or thirty knots an hour. Moreover, they were heavily armed. Nevertheless, the gun-fire of the *Gloucester* soon drove them ashore in flames—as Mr. Low puts it, "a most astonishing triumph of mind over matter."

THE VALUE OF TARGET-PRACTICE.

This is Mr. Maxim's explanation of the American naval victories:

"The American gunners had been highly trained; large sums of money had been expended

in ammunition to be used in target-practice at sea. Every man knew his gun and had confidence in himself, while the greater part of the Spanish gunners probably fired the large guns of their fleet on the morning of the action for the first time.

"There can be no question that the Spaniard individually has quite as much personal bravery as the American, but he has no taste for machinery, is not an engineer, and is completely without the skill which is necessary in order to understand and handle the ponderous and complicated machine that one calls a battleship or cruiser of to-day. Hand-to-hand sea-fighting is a thing of the past; naval battles are engineering conflicts between machines, and the man who understands these machines best is the man that is sure to win."

BIG GUNS AND HEAVY ARMOR PLATE.

In the closing paragraphs of his article Mr. Maxim summarizes the lessons that the naval engineer may derive from the war:

"I think it may also be said that naval warfare has reached so high a degree of development and requires such a mass of intricate and complicated machinery as to render it completely useless to unscientific nations. The wisdom of a government in insisting that everything relating to warfare should be constructed in its own country is apparent. If a nation make its instruments of warfare it will certainly be able to use them.

"The war has taught us, too, the small value of torpedoes as compared with heavy artillery. Many naval engineers have contended that the torpedo boat would be much less dangerous in actual warfare than was supposed, and the war seems to sustain their view.

"I think the war has also shown that the heavy gun throwing steel projectiles at a very high velocity, so as to have a flat trajectory, is the arm *par excellence*, the arm which we must depend upon in naval warfare, and that thick and heavy armor plate more than compensates for the additional weight and loss of speed involved. It has also shown the great value of battleships as compared with cruisers—that is, in a pitched battle; but it has not shown that cruisers are unnecessary. Had the Spanish cruisers been well cared for and well handled, there can be no question that they would have inflicted very serious damage upon the American fleet and might perhaps have bombarded some of the coast cities. The war has proved that we should stick to high-power guns and the conventional forms of cruisers and battleships and keep the navy free from cranks and fads."

SOME FACTS ABOUT THE WAR LOAN.

IN the September *Forum* Assistant Secretary of the Treasury Vanderlip writes on "Lessons of Our War Loan."

The arrangements for this bond issue, as Mr. Vanderlip remarks, had every element of popular success. It was in the fullest sense a popular loan. The bonds were issued in a popular cause, at a time when money was easy and securities were high. They were issued at par, and every man with \$20 knew that he could invest it and get a twenty-dollar security back. There was no commission, no premium, no restriction as to the character of the remittance. The Treasury received any form of United States currency, any kind of bank check or draft, post-office money-orders, or express money-orders.

It is a curious fact that a larger sum was received through the mails in currency than in post-office money-orders. It was not a rare thing to receive a thousand-dollar bill in an unregistered letter, and Mr. Vanderlip states that from all these subscribers there was no complaint of the loss of a currency remittance. The subscribers' use of banking instruments shows how general has become that method of remitting money.

"Over \$100,000,000 in checks, drafts, and certificates of deposit were received from subscribers for the five-hundred-dollar and smaller bonds, while the 2-per-cent. deposits on the subscriptions for the larger amounts were wholly in the shape of certified checks. About \$198,500,000 of the \$200,000,000 bonds issued will be paid for by means of bank paper and certificates of deposit.

DISTRIBUTION OF THE BONDS.

"Under the provisions of the law every subscription made by a syndicate, corporation, or association was rejected, the preference being given to individuals. The entire loan was absorbed by individual offers for amounts less than \$4,500.

"Half of the loan, more than \$100,000,000, has gone to 230,000 people each of whom subscribed for \$500 or less. The number of persons who applied for the bonds reached 320,000; and if they were mustered into military ranks they would outnumber by almost 100,000 our army of regulars and volunteers enlisted for the Spanish-American War. Standing at dress, side by side, they would form a line 120 miles long—a line that would reach clear across Cuba at its broadest point and half way back, or from Washington to Philadelphia. Had all these investors presented their subscriptions with the currency attached, it would have required three times the cash held in the vaults of the 3,600 national banks of the

country. Some idea of the enormous total of \$1,400,000,000 subscribed by these 320,000 persons may be gained by a comparison with the amount of money in circulation in the United States on August 1, 1898. On that date the money of all kinds in circulation aggregated \$1,809,198,000. If the United States had accepted in currency all the subscriptions made, the Treasury would have absorbed seven-ninths of all the money in circulation."

OUR NATIONAL FINANCES FROM A FRENCH POINT OF VIEW.

IN the first August number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* M. R. G. Lévy, a distinguished financial authority, writes an interesting article on the finances of the United States. M. Lévy traces in an interesting manner the history of the United States debt from the earliest times, and he goes on to discuss the local indebtedness of particular States. The total State indebtedness rose from \$12,000,000 in 1825 to \$353,000,000 in 1870 and fell to \$223,000,000 in 1890. Side by side with this diminution of State debt there is to be noticed an increase in the debts of counties, and, above all, of municipalities. The debts incurred by towns of more than 4,000 inhabitants rose from \$623,000,000 to \$646,000,000 in 1890.

A variety of circumstances, explained by M. Lévy, had combined to enrich the country as a whole before the war, but he anticipates that the new taxes now rendered necessary will dispose the people to examine the Federal budget with more care than hitherto. If an imperial policy of expansion be ultimately adopted by the American people, then it is clear, as M. Lévy says, that they must make up their minds to bear fiscal burdens similar to those under which the nations of Europe are groaning. But they have two great advantages over the nations of continental Europe. Their geographical situation is such that a large army is not needed, and they can concentrate the bulk of their expenditure on their fleet. Secondly they are already so rich and their still undeveloped resources are so great that they can practically play almost any game they like in the region of high politics, confident that when the time comes they can foot the bill without much difficulty. Altogether, it is pleasant to see that this able and learned Frenchman does full justice to the capacities, both intellectual and material, possessed by our people. He expresses the hope that the great republic will not yield to the temptation to abuse her economic power, but will remain faithful to the traditions of moderation, wisdom, and reason bequeathed to her by her illustrious founders. It is certainly to be hoped that M. Lévy's article will do something

toward enlightening French opinion, which, it will be remembered, was far from doing justice to the United States at the beginning of the war, but which now shows signs of a better mind.

"THE NEW IMPERIALISM."

THE Hon. John R. Procter, of the United States Civil Service Commission, contributes to the September *Forum* an article entitled "Isolation or Imperialism?" in which he advocates an aggressive policy of territorial expansion and coöperation with Great Britain, the Netherlands, and Japan in the control of the Pacific. This is his programme:

"First. There should be a treaty of arbitration entered into between the United States, Great Britain, the Netherlands, and Japan, into which other nations should be invited to enter.

"Second. These countries should unite in making coal as much a contraband of war as powder, coal being equally with powder essential to a modern warship. This would be a most potent conservator of peace.

"Third. All countries acquired by the United States should be thrown open to the commerce of the world on equal terms.

"Fourth. The United States, Great Britain, and Japan should proclaim a new Monroe doctrine applicable to China, and coöperate with that country in preventing acquisition of territory there by European powers.

"Fifth. The United States, Great Britain, and the Netherlands should proclaim and maintain a new Monroe doctrine applicable to the vast islands of the Indian Archipelago. The possessions of these three countries and Japan encircle the Pacific Ocean with an unbroken chain from Cape San Lucas, California, to New Zealand, with this country in possession of the central point of strategic vantage, Hawaii; and ere long this country will control the entrance into the Pacific from the East, as Great Britain controls the short route from the West."

AN ECONOMIC "IMPERIALISM."

IN the *North American Review* for September Mr. Charles A. Conant writes on "The Economic Basis of 'Imperialism,'" with special reference to our commercial interests in China and the other countries of the far East. He says:

"The United States cannot afford to adhere to a policy of isolation while other nations are reaching out for the command of these new markets. The United States are still large users of foreign capital, but American investors are not willing to see the return upon their investments reduced to the European level. Interest rates

have greatly declined here within the last five years. New markets and new opportunities for investment must be found if surplus capital is to be profitably employed.

"In pointing out the necessity that the United States shall enter upon a broad national policy, it need not be determined in just what manner that policy shall be worked out. Whether the United States shall actually acquire territorial possessions, shall set up captain-generalships and garrisons, whether they shall adopt the middle ground of protecting sovereignties nominally independent, or whether they shall content themselves with naval stations and diplomatic representations as the basis for asserting their rights to the free commerce of the East, is a matter of detail. The discussion of the details may be of high importance to our political morality and our historical traditions, but it bears upon the economic side of the question only so far as a given political policy is necessary to safeguard and extend commercial interests."

OUR CHINESE TRADE.

"The present situation in China is such as to call for energetic political action on the part of all powers which desire to obtain new openings for their commerce. Russia, Germany, and France have seized stations and large tracts of territory in China with a view to enforcing there their restrictive policy of shutting up the market to their own people. It is necessary, if the United States are to have an unimpaired share in the new trade of Asia, that they should protest against this policy of exclusion and seek to limit the area over which it is applied. Great Britain stands before the world, as she has done since the days of Huskisson and Peel, as the champion of free markets. The United States, if they are not to be excluded from Asia, must either sustain the policy of Great Britain or they must follow the narrower policy of the continental countries in carving out a market of their own. Silent indifference to what is going on in Asia is not merely a question of political and naval prestige or of territorial extension. It is a question whether the new markets which are being created there shall be opened to our commerce in any form under any conditions, and nothing but vigorous assertion of American interest in the subject will prevent the obstructions to the natural course of trade which will follow the division of Asia among the protectionist powers of the European continent."

With the "open-door" policy definitely established in the far East, American capital can find an outlet in equipping China with the mechanism of production and exchange.

THE PROBLEM OF THE PHILIPPINES.

OF the three articles on "The Problem of the Philippines" which appear in the *North American Review* for September, the one contributed by the Hon. John Barrett is the most pertinent to the discussions of the hour, notwithstanding the fact that it was actually written before the outbreak of hostilities between the United States and Spain. The situation that has resulted from Admiral Dewey's victory is fully anticipated in Mr. Barrett's article, and it is almost impossible for the reader to assure himself that the arguments presented were thought out and elaborated before our ships had entered the harbor of Manila. Whatever may be thought of the reasoning, it must be admitted that few men six months ago could have foreseen so accurately conditions as they are to-day.

The four propositions which Mr. Barrett outlines as representing the different policies that can be followed by the United States in determining the future of the Philippines are these:

"1. They can be held as a permanent possession, colony, Territory, or State of the United States.

"2. They can be returned to Spain on the payment of a war indemnity.

"3. They can be given their independence.

"4. They can be sold to some nation (other than Spain) under favorable conditions, or exchanged for certain of its possessions or for reciprocal advantages."

Of these eventualities Mr. Barrett regards the first or fourth as more likely of realization than the second or third. It is not at all probable that Spain would be able to pay an indemnity, and the masses of the Philippine population are totally unprepared for independence.

Mr. Barrett anticipates the principal arguments that have been made against annexation—the difficulties in the way of granting citizenship to the seven million inhabitants, the expense of fortifying and garrisoning Manila, and the danger that permanent occupation would place us on the same basis with European nations as a foreign colonial power, making us a party to international entanglements in both Asia and Europe.

WHAT CAN WE GAIN BY HOLDING THE ISLANDS?

On the other hand, Mr. Barrett sees in our retention of the islands certain important advantages, which he summarizes as follows:

"1. We would have an unsurpassed point in the far East from which to extend our commerce and trade and gain our share in the immense distribution of material prizes that must follow the opening of China, operating from Manila as a base as does England from Hong Kong.

"2. As England has Hong Kong and Singapore, France Saigon, Germany Kiao-Chow, Russia Port Arthur, the United States would have the great city of Manila as an American capital in the far East, from which to extend both our material and moral influence where vast interests are at stake, and through which the United States could keep in closest touch with all developments.

"3. We would have, in the Philippines themselves, one of the greatest undeveloped opportunities in all the world—a group of islands with numberless riches and resources awaiting exploitation, and capable of providing a market for a large quantity of our manufactured products.

"4. We would have in Manila a large and wealthy city and commercial *entrepôt*, located on one of the finest harbors in the world, and backed up by a country that outranks Japan in variety of resources, but which is not much more developed in the interior than Borneo.

"5. The steamers and ships that now ply between San Francisco, Portland, Tacoma, and Seattle, in the United States, and Yokohama, Shanghai, and Hong Kong, in the far East, would either make Manila their ultimate destination or have adequate connections with it, thus placing the ports, merchants, and manufacturers in closer relations with all Asia than ever before.

"6. The islands would easily be self-supporting in the matter of government after they were once placed in running order, and they should provide an abundant revenue for improvements of all kinds, even to harbor defenses and other fortifications, thus removing the great danger of proving a financial burden to ourselves. This is apart from the profits resulting to America and American interests in trade exchange and in exploiting the resources of this wonderful group, which includes over fifteen hundred islands and has a combined area equal to that of New York and New England together.

"7. The present situation demonstrates the vital necessity of having a naval (as well as a commercial) base in Asiatic waters. The moment neutrality is declared our fleet has no place in which to rendezvous, to coal, or to repair, and is seven thousand miles from the nearest home port! We hope and are confident that our ships will be more than a match for the Spanish fleet at Manila, but supposing they are unsuccessful, where can they go to recoup and recoal? Assuming that they defeat the Spanish squadron and a more powerful one comes out from Spain to meet them, where can they put in for protection or preparation if they are not equally matched or if some of the ships are unfit for action?

"8. The growing importance of the Pacific,

of Pacific commerce, Pacific politics, Pacific lands, and the responsibilities resting on the United States in connection with that growth, together with the impending opening of China and the wide-reaching effect thereof upon the United States as well as upon Europe, demand that we do not shirk the duty of governing the Philippines, which must play a leading part in all this development. What with the cutting of the Nicaragua Canal, the annexation of Hawaii, the laying of a Pacific cable, the rapid progress of our Pacific coast interests, the increase in our trade with the far East, and the necessity of finding wider foreign markets for our surplus products, is it too much to expect that we shall endeavor to hold the Philippines as a permanent possession if we succeed in taking them from Spain?"

THE DIFFICULTIES OF MAKING A SALE.

As to the fourth proposition—to sell the islands to another power or exchange them for reciprocal advantages—Mr. Barrett finds two very serious obstacles in the way. In the first place, few if any powers would pay our price or give us what we would ask in exchange. Furthermore, if any such sale or exchange were effected, other European powers would probably protest against one of their number obtaining such an overwhelming advantage in the East as would result from possession of the Philippines, and diplomatic differences would probably result. Mr. Barrett thinks that if Great Britain would give us her outposts off our Atlantic coast, like Bermuda and the Bahamas, together with Jamaica or some of the Windward Islands, in exchange for the Philippines, we should not be losers in the end, but England might not think as favorably of the bargain as we, while France might interpose objections that her coast of Annam and Cambodia should be flanked by British Philippines. Japan, he thinks, could not afford to pay the price, and she has nothing to give in exchange.

WHAT IS TO BE DONE WITH CUBA?

IN the *North American Review* for September Mr. Mayo W. Hazeltine discusses this question, taking it for granted, of course, that the destinies of the island are to be shaped by the United States.

Mr. Hazeltine's article is largely devoted to an examination of the declaration of Congress that we entered upon the war with Spain with no other motive than to assure complete political independence to Cuba. But for the existence of that resolution of Congress, as Mr. Hazeltine says, we should deal with Cuba precisely as we have dealt with other foreign territory which from time

to time we have annexed—Florida, California, New Mexico, and the whole Louisiana region acquired by purchase from France. The widest possible application of the resolution might preclude even our annexation of Porto Rico or our demand for coaling stations in the Ladrões and the Philippines, but Mr. Hazeltine rightly pronounces this deduction a *reductio ad absurdum*:

"There is not one American citizen in a hundred, probably there is not one in a thousand, who believes that because we entered upon the war with a philanthropic purpose we are precluded from exacting some compensation for the outlay which the stiff-necked refusal of Spain to treat her colonists with justice has compelled us to make. Moreover, the logic of philanthropy would itself point to a different conclusion. The inhabitants of Porto Rico have little more reason to be satisfied with Spanish rule than have the Cubans, and the inhabitants of the Philippines have even stronger reasons for detesting it. Having once opened the prospect of freedom to Porto Rico and Luzon, the same motives which impelled us to the liberation of Cuba should prompt us to shield the two former islands from a ghastly disappointment."

ENGLISH AND FRENCH PRECEDENTS.

"Let us look now at the letter of the self-denying ordinance and inquire to what it binds us. Here let us observe that the American republic is not the only power which, in recent times, has made a similar declaration at the outset of military operations. When France took possession of Tunis and when England assumed control of Egypt the act was coupled, in each instance, with the promise that the occupation should cease when the country occupied should be fully pacified and the conditions requisite for the establishment of a stable native government should be forthcoming. Many years have passed, yet France continues to retain the Tunisian regency and England the valley of the Lower Nile; with good reason, also, for it is acknowledged by all unprejudiced observers that the evacuation of either region by its European custodian would be followed by anarchy and devastation. In the interest of the populations concerned, both England and France have proceeded on the assumption that the time for the fulfillment of their optimistic promise has not arrived, nor is yet even in sight; meanwhile they have proceeded on the principle expressed by Pope:

"For forms of government let fools contest;
What's best administered is best."

Mr. Hazeltine has grave doubts whether the Cubans can administer any kind of government for themselves.

AN INDEPENDENT CUBAN GOVERNMENT.

Mr. Hazeltine considers the possibility of setting up an independent government in Cuba, first directing attention to the fact that the so-called provisional government of the insurgents has never been recognized by President McKinley, even as a belligerent, no reference having been made to it in the message which led to the declaration of war. As to the right of the insurgents to be regarded as representing the people of Cuba, Mr. Hazeltine says:

"Have we any reason to believe that the insurgents and their sympathizers constitute a majority, or even a strong minority, of the inhabitants of the island? Where is the proof of such numerical preponderance? No conclusive proof can be forthcoming until a plebiscite shall be taken under conditions which assure a perfectly free expression of opinion. It may be that if the purity of the ballot-box were assured through American control, a large majority of the inhabitants of Cuba would invoke the guarantees against foreign interference and intestine disorder which would be afforded through the acceptance of the status of a State or Territory in our Union. If such should be the outcome of a plebiscite, it is obvious that the very spirit of the declaration made by Congress, no matter how narrowly construed, would forbid our adherence to the letter. We could not impose on the inhabitants of Cuba complete political independence—that is to say, political isolation and economical paralysis, together with the grim necessity of coping with dangerous racial problems—against the consent of the majority; for if the result of such an act upon our part were the eventual experience by Cuba of the fate of Haiti, we should be held responsible in history for a crime against civilization. Having delivered Cuba from the Spanish yoke, we are accountable for her tranquillity and prosperity; should she be ruined through our abandonment, we cannot absolve ourselves hereafter by the plea, 'Was I my brother's keeper?'"

"It is clear that thorough pacification is the condition precedent to an entirely free expression of opinion and aspiration on the part of a majority of the inhabitants of Cuba. By inhabitants we mean, and ought to mean, all those persons, whether insurgents, autonomists, or ex-loyalists, whether born in the island or elsewhere, who signify a wish to maintain a domicile in the Pearl of the Antilles. We cannot drive into exile those native Cubans who have supported Blanco's autonomist government, or those resident civilian Spaniards who follow vocations and own property in the cities and large towns, and who are said to number much more than one hundred and fifty thousand. If even the

members of the latter category elect to abide in Cuba and to accept the change of *régime*, we cannot, without repudiating our philanthropic professions, withhold from them the privilege."

In conclusion, Mr. Hazeltine disclaims any desire to quibble about the terms or intent of the declaration of Congress:

"The question for us to keep in view is not what Congress might have said or should have said, but what it did say. Congress pledged itself to give the Cubans political independence, and until Congress itself shall have seen fit to retract or modify the pledge it must be carried out.

"As regards, nevertheless, the time and method of fulfillment, some reasonable precautions must be taken. The island must be thoroughly pacified and the conflicting elements of its population must be brought into at least transient harmony before they are invited to discharge the high and difficult function of framing a constitution for an independent republic. In the interest of all the constituents which make up the mixed Cuban people, whether insurgents, or native-born autonomists, or resident Spaniards, it will be the duty of our Government, as their trustee before the world, to examine the proposed constitution and see whether, on its face at all events, it is calculated to administer the even-handed justice which we shall have dealt out during the period of pacification to all the inhabitants of Cuba, without distinction of color or descent. If the projected organic law shall be found ostensibly to answer all the requirements of good sense and equity, then, unless the resolution of Congress shall have been, in the meanwhile, modified, we shall be bound to allow the Cubans to institute their new *régime*, if they, not by that time enlightened by the happy experience of Porto Rico under the Stars and Stripes, shall still insist on the political independence which, for them, will mean economic isolation and relative commercial inactivity."

SPANISH OFFICIALISM.

IN *Blackwood's* for September Hannah Lynch describes "The Spaniard at Home." Her account of official sloth in Spain goes far to explain the extraordinary state of unpreparedness in which Spain found herself at the outbreak of hostilities with the United States.

"Meditating on the exposure of national imbecility the present war reveals, I am minded of the daily existence of one of the most important of Spanish military officials I once was privileged to study in profound astonishment. This man received a large, a very large, salary from the government, and ruled over no less than four

immense provinces. He rose at 9 or 10, swallowed his chocolate, smoked a cigar, and at 11 o'clock went to his office, where he signed papers, gossiped a little with his several secretaries, and came upstairs to breakfast at noon. After breakfast he slept for a couple of hours, walked up and down the *salon*, smoking and listening to the chatter of his women-folks, went downstairs to his office at 3, and remained until 4 o'clock, and that was the extent of his daily labor.

"The state paid him enormously, for Spain, for exactly two hours' insignificant work, and the rest of the time he did nothing but sleep, smoke, rock himself in a big rocking-chair, too lazy to stir out, to walk or drive or ride, too dull and indifferent to read or talk. His mind was as empty as his days; and with such military chiefs in office, is it any wonder that not a single preparation for the war was made, not a single evidence of official competence, of forethought, of average intelligence was displayed by Spain at home or in her colonies? And this is by no means an isolated case.

"I studied for a month in a public library of Spain. The officials always arrived long after I was seated at my table. All the time they remained there they walked about or sat on tables, gossiping and smoking. Nobody wrote, nobody read, nobody knew anything on earth about the books in every one's charge, and at 1 o'clock they locked up the library and went home, worn out with the day's labor, to refresh themselves with a *siesta* and a lounge upon the public place. And this is the life of the average Spaniard, rich or poor, unless he plays *pelota*, bicycles, or rides."

JAMES RUSSELL LOWELL'S OBSERVATIONS IN SPAIN.

A NUMBER of the official dispatches sent to the Government at Washington by the late James Russell Lowell while United States minister to Spain have been unearthed in the archives of the State Department and published by the *Critic*. These dispatches relate chiefly to royal functions at Madrid, but incidentally throw much light on social and political conditions. It need not be said that the style is anything but "official," if conventional government correspondence be taken as the standard.

October 29, 1878, Mr. Lowell writes of the attempted assassination of King Alfonso, adding this comment:

"It is a curious illustration of the artificial state of politics here, that although the King would naturally be glad to pardon the criminal, it is said that he will be unable to do so lest the whole affair should seem a tragic comedy arranged

beforehand between the ministry and the actors as a test of popular sentiment."

November 16, 1879, Mr. Lowell transmits the official note informing this Government of the intended marriage of King Alfonso with the Austrian Princess Maria Christina (now Queen Regent). Mr. Lowell writes:

"Naturally this event does not excite either the sympathies or the animosities awakened by the wedding of twenty-two months ago, and it occurs at a time when the country is saddened by the terrible inundation of Murcia and public attention distracted by the recent news from Cuba. The young Archduchess is said to possess qualities likely to render her popular, if only she is able to disarm the criticism to which any foreign and perhaps especially any Austrian princess will be exposed in Spain.

"The match is declared to have no political significance whatever, though circumstances may easily be imagined in which the eagerness of many Spaniards that Spain should follow the example of Italy under the leadership of Cavour might guide it in an importance which it does not intrinsically possess."

After the wedding Mr. Lowell writes a brief description of the bride:

"The new Queen attracts sympathy by the gracious cordiality of her manners, her youth, and the dignity of her bearing. She is good-looking without being beautiful; she has the projecting chin of her race, though softened in her by feminine delicacy of feature. One seems to see in her a certain resemblance to Marie Antoinette, and she mounts a throne that certainly seems less firm than that of France when her kinswoman arrived in Paris to share what all believed would be the prosperous fortunes of her heir-apparent. Such associations lent a kind of pathos to the unaffected happiness which lighted the face of Maria Christina."

CARLISM.

DR. E. J. DILLON writes in the *Contemporary Review* on "The Coming of Carlism." The article, which covers thirty pages, is not exactly a prediction as to the coming of Carlism. It is rather an indication of the circumstances under which Carlism might come. Dr. Dillon confirms everything that has hitherto been said as to the shocking state of rottenness that prevails at headquarters in Spain.

SPANISH FEELING ON THE TERMS OF PEACE.

He ridicules the idea that the Spanish people are likely to resent the loss of their colonies by overturning either the ministry or the monarchy, for the one desire of the Spanish people is peace

and an opportunity of earning their daily bread. So far from there being any passionate resentment against the government for making peace with the United States, Dr. Dillon says that he does not hesitate to assert, "and in this I am supported by the deliberate statements of Spaniards of all parties, that if the peace conditions were to involve the protectorate of Spain itself by the United States, there would be neither indignation, commotion, nor protest among the people; in fact, the feeling would be uncommonly akin to relief, as it was in Porto Rico."

The listless indifference of the masses to all things political is the greatest safeguard which the government has heretofore possessed. The only possible alternative to the present dynasty is Carlism:

"The army is as bitterly opposed to republicanism as to the hybrid form of government which has irretrievably ruined the country and demoralized the people, and the only alternative to Carlism which the army would seriously entertain is a military dictatorship."

Dr. Dillon has had some long conversations with the leading Carlists in Spain, and he summarizes the results of these interviews in half a dozen pages which bear very considerable resemblance to his own conclusions. Everybody in Spain, except those who are dependent for their living upon the good-will of the present administration, is impatient to be free from the nightmare of liberalism, for, in the opinion of his Carlist friends, the constitutional monarchy is neither a monarchy nor constitutional, but the incarnation in politics of a huge blood-sucking vampire. To every Spaniard, except the present office-holders, Carlism is synonymous with relief, release, and reform. Spanish constitutionalism, say the Carlists, is a snare of Satan's hurled into and embodied in the political life of the peninsula.

THE RISK OF REVOLUTION.

The majority of the people are extremely poor, bankruptcy will inevitably follow war, and when the lower middle classes, who at present live upon one meal a day of boiled peas, dry bread, olives, and garlic, are unable to obtain even that slender modicum of food necessary for existence, bread riots will break out and distress will bring about revolution:

"It is only when the male and female bread-winners of the country can find no more work to do, while the barest necessities of life have risen 50 or 60 per cent. in price, and when hunger typhus fills the churchyards with the would-be workers and the streets with the waifs and strays who once depended upon them, that the people of Spain will be moved to their depths."

The loss of the Spanish colonies will directly contribute to this result, because Spanish manufactures are largely, if not exclusively, dependent for their existence upon the colonial market:

"When all the factories and works dependent upon the colonies shall have collapsed, when all the trade and industry bound up with a considerable navy and merchant fleet shall have disappeared, when scores of thousands of mutilated and sickly soldiers have come to swell the ranks of the poverty-stricken, and when for large numbers of the people, the begging having proved bootless, the choice will lie between bread riots leading to a revolution and death by starvation, then the real tug of war will begin."

EVERY POLITICAL FACTOR SECURED.

Apart from the fact that hunger will certainly precipitate thousands into the streets, the Carlists chiefly rely upon the army. The story that the old Carlist officers will have to be provided with commissions at the expense of the present staff is denied by Dr. Dillon. Many officers are decidedly Carlist in their sympathies, and Don Carlos thinks he can rely upon the present army for coöperation. Subscriptions are coming in from all parts of Spain and from various towns in France. The rank and file of the clergy are Carlist almost to a man:

"Thus Carlism seems to carry with it every political factor and most of the non-political but important elements of the population, excepting certain of the republicans and those friends of constitutionalism the tenacity of whose political conviction is intensified by the love of a guaranteed salary and the fear of chronic hunger."

It is difficult to discriminate between what Dr. Dillon states as his own convictions and what he reports as a chronicler of the views of his informants; but certainly no Carlist could exceed him in his disgust with the present ministry and his utter despair of any salvation arising from the ranks of the constitutional monarchists.

The Carlist Programme.

The Marquis de Ruigny and Mr. Cranstoun Metcalfe contribute to the *Fortnightly Review* an article on "The Carlist Policy in Spain," which is largely in the shape of a reply to an article contributed by "A Spaniard" to a former number of the review. Omitting the controversial passages, the following may be taken as a more or less official declaration of the Carlist programme:

"Decentralization is one of the chief points of the Carlist programme. Local centers will take the place of the present bureaucracy in all matters of local interest, and municipal authority over local finance will resume its power. The

ancient *fueros* of the Basque Provinces, Navarre, Aragon, Valencia, Catalonia, and Majorca, with the ancient customs of Galicia and the Asturias, will be restored; and even in those provinces where no such traditional institutions exist the principle of what the British call local self-government will be established.

"The necessity for a radical financial reform is, however, very evident to Don Carlos and his advisers, and a complete scheme has been prepared by competent authorities. A prominent feature of this scheme, and one which seems to have much to commend it, is that the secretary of state, who will act as finance minister or chancellor of the exchequer, will be made independent of such mere political changes as may necessitate the removal of his colleagues.

"The labor question has had the attention of the party, and is one in which Don Carlos has particularly interested himself. The formation of guilds and friendly societies is to be encouraged, and great efforts will be made to reduce the burden of taxation, which at present falls so heavily and so unfairly on the agricultural population, and thus to stop the drain of emigration to America and Africa.

"Reorganization of the law courts, general economy, beginning with the reduction of the civil list, revision of the scale of wages paid to workmen, and reduction in the price of food stuffs are other items of the Legitimist programme, of which we have thought it wise to give this brief indication, inasmuch as it is a common supposition in this country that Don Carlos is only working for his own restoration, and that his practical policy is nebulous in the extreme."

THE TWO POLICIES OF RUSSIA.

THE place of honor in the second August number of the *Nouvelle Revue* is given to an anonymous article on "The Two Policies of Russia." The writer represents Russia as having recently executed a complete change of policy in view of the situation in the far East. The "Sick Man" of Peking has taken the place of the "Sick Man" of Constantinople as an object of Russian interest, and the writer endeavors to show how fatal the consequences will be to Russia if certain counselors of the Czar succeed in carrying out their policy to the bitter end. It is erroneous, we are told, to represent the new policy as a heritage bequeathed by Alexander III. The new Eastern policy of Russia dates in reality from the treaty of Shimonoseki, and the interest which Alexander III. showed in the Trans-Siberian Railway was not because he thought of dominating China, but because he regarded it as a strategic defense.

M. Hanotaux did not foresee in 1895 that the active interference of Russia in the affairs of the far East at the conclusion of the Chino-Japanese War would be the signal of the loosening of the bond of the Franco-Russian alliance, and of a decreased interest on the part of Russia in the politics of Europe. This new Asian policy did not triumph in the councils of the young Emperor without a struggle, for Russia is bound by many ties of race and religion to the Christian East. The blood freely shed by Russia in the past cried out against this sudden abandonment of the Orthodox Christians of Eastern Europe, and discontent was widespread in the army and among the superior clergy. As for the Russian nobility, they would have preferred that the resources of the government should have been employed in saving them from annihilation, rather than in pursuing the Chinese will-o'-the-wisp.

EUROPEAN POLITICS SUPERSEDED BY ASIAN.

The new policy was headed by Count Muraviev, while the old policy is understood to have been strenuously defended by M. Witte, the powerful finance minister, whose representative in the press is Prince Oukhtomsky. The writer of this article has read the British Blue-Book, from which he quotes copiously, as well as from other and less official authorities. He explains that M. Witte was opposed to the occupation of Talien-Wan and Port Arthur to such an extent that his customary prudence deserted him, and he went so far as to reproach a foreign ambassador for not having consulted him on some point because he (M. Witte) held in his hands all the threads of Russian policy and alone directed it. The struggle was naturally transferred to the private cabinet of the Emperor, and it seemed at one moment as if the finance minister would resign; but the Czar remarked: "It rests with me alone to choose the moment at which I wish to part from my minister." The writer goes on to say that the Sultan's great terror nowadays is the possibility of an understanding between England and Russia, and apparently looks forward to some such outcome of the whole situation. He considers that Russia's acquisition of an ice-free port as a terminus for the Trans-Siberian Railway provides her with a graceful opportunity of escaping from a deplorable policy. He is impressed with the danger to Russia of foreign capital, with its secret influence upon foreign policy. Nearly all Russia's railroads are pledged to foreigners. A country in this position cannot afford to undertake in China a struggle not only with England, but also with the United States and Germany, without being a prey to the rapacious speculator.

THE PEACE OF BISMARCK.

THERE are two articles in the *Fortnightly Review* for September on Bismarck. Mr. W. H. Dawson, who had the advantage of hearing Bismarck make some of his most famous speeches, and who afterward had prolonged tête-à-têtes with him in the privacy of his own house, writing on the subject of the Bismarck memoirs, says:

"Much has been written of late about the Prince's memoirs, and it will not be amiss to recall some words which he addressed to me on the subject more than six years ago. 'I shall not publish anything during my lifetime,' he said. 'There are so many events of which I am now the only living witness, and you will see how the publication of memoirs while I live would land me in every manner of polemic, and that, at my advanced age, I could not stand. But I shall leave papers and memoranda to my children, who will deal with them after I am gone. For the rest, I trust to history.' 'And history is just and speaks truth,' I ventured to say as our conversation drew to a close. 'Yes,' he repeated, 'history is just, but her judgments always tarry long—it may be thirty, forty years. Yet history is just.'"

A PEACE PRESERVER.

"Diplomaticus," in an article under the title of "The Peace of Bismarck," lays stress not altogether unnecessarily on the fact that although Prince Bismarck is chiefly remembered by the part he played in the wars which remodeled Europe, he was during the greater part of his ministerial career a diligent preserver of the peace:

"Of the thirty-eight years during which he held office in Germany, twenty were devoted to the preservation of peace. During the whole of that period he labored unwearingly for peace and peace alone. Like Elizabeth, he was haunted by one great dread, and, like her, he fought against it with a statesmanship which neglected none of the resources of a 'shameful dishonesty.' The peace of Bismarck does not bulk largely in the popular imagination, but it is a chapter of European history which may not unreasonably claim to rank on the same level with the record of his wars."

GERMANY AND RUSSIA.

"Diplomaticus" attributes the formation of the Austro-German alliance to a threat made by the Russian Emperor, under Prince Gortschakoff's influence, that he would go to war with Germany if she did not always support the Russian delegates in the proceedings of the Novi-

bazar Delimitation Commission in 1878. It was at this time that General Obrucheff was ostentatiously ordered to Paris to attend the French military maneuvers. Bismarck's chief triumph, however, was to supplement the triple alliance by a private and separate agreement with Russia which practically secured at one time the peace of Europe and the predominance of Germany. "Diplomaticus" says:

"The peace of Bismarck still exists. However unscrupulous may have been the policy by which it was maintained between 1870 and 1890, it conferred benefits which we are still enjoying. It nursed Europe through a dangerous time. It consolidated a situation which was largely experimental. It blunted hatreds and gradually won the good sense of the world to declare against them. This long-continued peace accumulated fresh force as it grew older, and the world and its rulers are now less disposed to war than ever they were. Moreover, it preserved intact the work of Bismarck himself, and that is a greater achievement than can be laid to the credit of Napoleon, with whom the Iron Chancellor is so frequently compared, or than can be claimed by the allied powers who destroyed Napoleon and made the long-vanished settlement of 1815."

BISMARCK AS AN EDITOR.

IN the *Bookman* for October Mr. Henry W. Fischer describes one phase of Bismarck's career which has received less notice in the published biographical sketches than its real importance seems to demand. We refer to the Iron Chancellor's journalistic activities.

In 1848 Bismarck was busily engaged in writing political leaders and other contributions for the newspapers, and from that time to the day of his death, a half century later, he was never fairly out of the journalistic harness. In 1849 and the following years newspapers were founded and subsidized by Bismarck and his party throughout Prussia.

"When, in 1862, Bismarck assumed the Prussian premiership, the liberal press characterized him as an 'empty-headed scribbler,' a puffed-up braggart." But as, at the same time, he obtained control of the government's bribery funds, the royalist press entered upon an era of prosperity. Heretofore Bismarck had fed it with flashes of genius; now he smote his competitors by reserving the news for his papers exclusively. It was a journalistic *coup d'état*. Backed by newspapers that were newspapers and which the majority of the people had to read, whether they agreed with their opinions or not, Bismarck could afford to ignore the legitimate rights of the Prince of

Augustenburg after 1864, and two years later could enter upon the unpopular war against Austria, taking the sinews of war from the public treasury without a shadow of right."

THE "REPTILE FUND."

"From the middle of 1867 until March, 1890, the day of his dismissal, the funds for editorial work and for influencing public opinion placed at Bismarck's disposal exceeded the sum of 2,000,000 marks per year—the revenue of the sequestered fortune of King George of Hanover and certain appropriations for secret purposes. This was the 'reptile fund.'"

"Ah, the ocean of black tears wept over the 'reptile fund!' The press of the world joined the German liberal papers in protesting against this scandal. 'But,' said Prince Bismarck when it was all over and after he had retired to Friedrichsruhe, 'what of it? Let us assume for argument's sake that I spent during the last twenty-three years of my chancellorship 45,000,000 marks in editing, printing, and subsidizing various newspapers. Thanks to my direction of the press, Europe enjoyed twenty years of peace, and war in Europe costs, according to the calculations of 1870 and 1871, 800,000,000 marks per year.'"

BISMARCK'S NEWSPAPERS.

"From 1872 to 1890 Bismarck was quasi editor of the *Cologne Gazette*, the *Berlin Post*, the *North German Gazette* (*Allgemeine Zeitung*), the *Hamburger Nachrichten*, and the *Berlin Political News*. The *Cologne Gazette* reflected Bismarck's political opinion, passing it off as its own, for the sake of the exclusive news furnished to its home office and to its correspondents in all parts of the world by order of the chancellor. If there was an epoch-making or interesting bit of intelligence in Wilhelm Strasse, the *Gazette's* special wire carried it to the Rhenish Cathedral City before even the heads of departments in the chancellor's office heard of it. And wherever German ambassadors, ministers, and consuls resided, they had to think of the *Cologne Gazette* immediately after their chief had been informed of the political news and gossip at hand. No wonder the *Cologne Gazette* grew to be regarded as a second *London Times*. The *Post* received for its support news of the second class, and besides 'patronage,' the *Hamburger Nachrichten* had to be content with an occasional bit of intelligence and the *Berlin Political News* disseminated routine matter for the chancellor. The *North German Gazette* did the illustrious statesman's dirty work.

"Though received by some 10,000 persons daily, this journal never had a *bona fide* circulation. Its subscribers were, and are now, gov-

ernment officials and—editors. Yes, editors! In Bismarck's times no German editor could get along without the *North German Gazette*. He might miss the Cologne paper and the *Post*; it is not always essential to print the news in the fatherland, but it meant certain death for a newspaper not to know with whom the chancellor was quarreling, against what persons he was intriguing, or whom he chose to regard with especial favor at a given time. The *North German Gazette* furnished this sort of items red-hot day by day. For their sake the paper was bought by editors throughout Europe—none would be without this political scandal-monger, professedly as much opposed to sensationalism as any High Church organ, but if need be as 'yellow' as any of our up-to-date penny journals. 'At the time Pindter' (the ostensible editor of the *North German Gazette*) 'placed so and so many columns of white paper at my disposal,' was one of Bismarck's standing phrases. He used it frequently when speaking of the political history of the last two decades."

In 1890, when Bismarck left office, of all the 500 Bismarck organs scattered throughout Germany—papers which Bismarck had patronized by furnishing news, advertisements, money contributions, or talented editors—only one, the *Hamburger Nachrichten*, remained true to him.

AS EDITOR OF THE "NACHRICHTEN."

Mr. Fischer gives the following account of Bismarck's round of editorial duties at Friedrichsruhe after his retirement from public office:

"The polite but narrow-minded Chrysander was at once 'office-boy' and secretary. His first duty was to open the voluminous parcels with newspaper clippings, suggestions, queries, and articles written for approval, correction, or—the waste-basket sent in by Managing Editor Hofmann from Hamburg by special messenger every morning in the year.

"Hofmann read the newspapers with a view to 'Bismarckiana.' A half dozen scissors editors worked under his direction and cut out every item, important or insignificant, relating to the Prince or his policy that appeared in any newspaper or magazine the world over. The printed intelligence or absurdity might tell of things that happened twenty or forty years ago, or it might rehearse facts applying to the present incumbent of the chancellor's or foreign minister's office. If by a single iota it could be so turned as to suggest a connection with Bismarck's personality or his public life, the editor-in-chief must see it, and woe to the man overlooking or undervaluing what might seem to him only a bit of idle gossip.

"Dr. Chrysander read aloud the German and French clippings and the translations of items that appeared in Spanish and Italian newspapers. The cuttings from the English and Russian press the Prince read himself. He understood Russian quite well, and I can appreciate his refusal to let Chrysander massacre the Queen's English, for while I do not underrate Carl Schurz' eminence as an English scholar, I must say I never heard a German speak such beautiful English as Bismarck.

"Pipe in mouth and a pencil half a yard long in his fingers, the Prince listened attentively. If an item warranted the trouble, he held out his hand when Chrysander had finished and studied the clipping word for word, afterward delivering his criticism in some such phrase as 'good,' 'sane,' 'ought to be encouraged,' or 'rotten,' 'a confounded lie,' or simply 'ox,' 'ass,' etc. If an article enraged him, or if he was especially interested in the writer or newspaper, he was liable to personally mark the clipping with his approval or disapproval. Then his long, soft pencil descended upon the margin vigorously to inscribe with short, powerful strokes an epigram, such as he delighted in coining all through his public life. If for the instruction of the managing editor ampler directions were needed, or if the Prince had but some coarse, contemptuous criticism to offer, the marking of the paragraph was left to Chrysander."

BISMARCK'S MANAGING EDITOR.

"Like a good editor Bismarck settled all editorial questions submitted to him on any given day by return of mail—that is to say, all that he wanted to dispose of. Sometimes he deemed a letter of instructions necessary; very frequently he called Dr. Hofmann to a conference. Hofmann had, of course, no opinion of his own. The Prince did all the talking; the managing editor absorbed his thoughts, drank in his words as a sponge does liquid. If it was a very important or very new matter he asked permission to jot down the leading article or paragraph that was to appear. Consent was readily given, and the Prince revised the manuscript, often changing the meaning of the whole or improving on his own previous statements. This the doctor did not mind, but he positively trembled when his chief insisted upon writing an article himself or upon dictating one to Chrysander. Visions of prison gates, of challenges and prolonged press wars rose before his cautious soul, for the old thunderer, though engaged on a respectable provincial sheet for nearly eight years, had not yet learned to purr or to call a spade other than a spade, or, perchance, a 'confounded' spade or worse."

"Whether the Prince was at home or abroad, his editorial duties had precedence of everything else. Dr. Hofmann submitted his budget of clippings by mail, his queries by letter, by telegraph, or in person. In late years he sometimes accompanied the Prince on journeys; on other occasions he merely sent one or two expert reporters along, holding himself ready to rush to his chief's side at a moment's notice. In the telegrams between the home office and the editor Bismarck was always referred to as 'S. D.' (*Seine Durchlaucht*—His Grace). These newspaper people were never allowed to lose sight of the fact that their chief was a great lord as well as an overpowering genius."

THE PERSONAL SIDE OF RICHARD WAGNER.

IN the *Ladies' Home Journal* for October appears the first of two important papers on the composer Wagner written by Houston Stewart Chamberlain, Wagner's biographer, "with the approval and assistance of Frau Wagner."

Wagner was a man of strong domestic tastes, and it is this side of his character that Mr. Chamberlain makes prominent in his article.

"Wagner's first wife was a beautiful woman. Unfortunately she gave him no children, which somewhat marred their happiness, for he adored children, and she, remaining childless, was thrown back on the sole companionship of a man whom she fondly loved, but whose genius remained veiled to her. This first wife, Wilhelmina, died in 1866, after almost thirty years of married life. Soon after her death Wagner married the younger daughter of his great friend, Franz Liszt, and to them were born a daughter and a son. The last years of his life were consequently the happiest, in spite of all the bitter disappointments they were so rich in. His second wife was a woman of unquestionable genius, a most able and untiring ally in the pursuit of his lofty artistic schemes, destined besides to continue after his death what he had only been able to initiate, and in his home and garden rang the merry laughter of children. This—yes, this, indeed—was the 'luxury' he had been ambitious for his whole life long."

WAGNER NOT A BUSINESS MAN.

Although Wagner certainly displayed great courage and intrepidity in the battle of life, he was not at all a business man in the ordinary sense of the term.

"I know no single act of his whole life which could be interpreted as a wish to do himself a good turn, to amass riches, or to seek honorary distinctions. These latter, which, toward the

close of his life, poured in from all quarters, he always stubbornly refused. Medals and titles were sent back to the donors by return of post. And as for money, Wagner's standpoint was delightfully simple. In a letter written when about forty years of age Wagner says: 'Yes, I admit that I do require some little comfort and luxury. I cannot pour out my heart blood in works of art while a bare table stands staring at me and poverty is the familiar spirit of my home. But it is the world's duty to give men of my stamp what they require, and to give it without grudging.' This was a poet's way of looking at the matter, and no wonder that Wagner was involved in pecuniary difficulties his whole life long.

"If Wagner had been born half a century later his position would have been more tolerable. Dramatic authors and composers now always get a percentage of every performance in all theaters, and these rights are secured by international treaties for every country of Europe. This was not formerly the case. In the first place, the Royal Theater at Dresden (where Wagner's early works were first given) never paid him anything at all, as one of the regulations of this opera-house is that when it performs works whose authors are officials belonging to the Royal Theater they get no remuneration whatever. Soon—it was in the 50s—Wagner's works began to spread through Germany; one town after another put 'The Flying Dutchman,' 'Rienzi,' 'Tannhäuser,' and 'Lohengrin' on its theater's programme. But at that epoch theaters in Germany gave no percentage whatever. The only obligation the law imposed on them was to buy the score. The price of the score was fixed in each special case between the theater and the author, and varied according to the population of the town and the success expected. Once the score was bought the theater had no further obligation toward the author. Wagner usually got from \$40 to \$80 for a score and rarely \$120. What Wagner got—once for all—for 'Rienzi,' 'The Flying Dutchman,' 'Tannhäuser,' and 'Lohengrin' amounted, therefore, all told, to something like \$50 to \$100 from each theater which put these works on the stage.

"LOHENGRIN" SOLD FOR EIGHTY DOLLARS.

"The first contract in which a percentage is stipulated is that with the Royal Theater in Berlin, in 1855, for 'Tannhäuser.' It will be readily understood that many theaters made millions in this way with works they had paid a hundred dollars for. Later, the law and the usages having altered, and Wagner having achieved world-wide renown, he was, of course, able to exact a percentage everywhere—8 to

10 per cent. being the usual sum. But the difficulty was to get the theaters which had bought his older works years before to pay percentage on them. This was accomplished by withholding the newer works from them till they agreed to pay the usual percentage on the former ones. But it was not till very near the close of his life that the trusty and devoted business friends whom Wagner had found in Bayreuth, and to whom he had in a large measure given over the care of his interests, had managed to bring all these matters into good working order. From that moment the property became very remunerative.

"Another source of income ought to have been the sale of the scores to the publishers, several of whom have made fortunes with them. But the fact that Wagner was always in want of money put him in a disadvantageous position. 'Tristan,' for example, was sold for \$800, and 'Lohengrin' for \$80. Then, again, it was not till 1872 that the law extended the privilege of property from ten years to thirty years after the author's death. Wagner's works were then all out or sold except 'Parsifal.' His publishers, not he, pocketed the enormous increase of profit these extra twenty years of privilege conferred. And yet Wagner would have died a wealthy man, so great was the popularity of his works, had he not spent all he possessed, and much more, on Bayreuth. To understand this, one must begin by understanding that to say that Wagner was not a good man of business is merely to look at the question from the outside; if we go deeper we shall find, instead of this negative proposition, an affirmative one. Wagner refused to admit any business consideration in matters concerning art. According to him, venality, be it ever so apparently harmless and legitimate, is the death of real art, the essence of which, or rather the moral atmosphere of which, should always be absolute disinterestedness. This Wagner not only preached, but practiced."

HOLLAND'S GIRL QUEEN.

WILHELMINA, last month crowned Queen of the Netherlands, is the subject of an interesting sketch by Winslow Bates in the *National Magazine* for October.

The story of the young Queen's life as a princess runs as follows:

"It was about 6 o'clock on August 31, 1880, that the report of a cannon in the barracks at The Hague announced to the world that an heir to the throne of the Netherlands had been born. The glad tidings clicked over the wires to every crowned head in Europe. The

Hague bedecked itself in holiday attire the same as it did recently at the coronation, and grand illuminations lit up the land, while the sedate old burgher who kept the official books dipped his pen calmly into the ink-well and entered on the city register as a new birth the name of 'Wilhelmina Helena Paulina Maria.' The birth of this little Princess was an event of profound importance, as the ruthless hand of death had caused break after break in the house of Orange, and the question as to the succession to the throne was becoming indeed a perplexing problem. The father to this Princess, King William III., the last male member of the house of Orange and a ruler not entirely exemplary in every way, died in 1890, from which date to the present coronation his wife Emma, as Queen Regent, has had a two-fold task of a magnitude such as a woman is seldom called upon to bear. With what success she has held the reins of government and educated her daughter to become a queen the world by this time knows quite well. For the heritage which the Queen mother passed to her daughter on the day of coronation was greater by far than the one she received from the departed King, her husband. It is not strange, then, that the prayer of the fatherland to-day is that Holland may be as happy and as prosperous under the young Queen's reign as it was under that of her mother's.

THE QUEEN'S YOUTH.

"It is now something of an old story how Wilhelmina passed through the days of her youth. For a long time she has been at once both an interesting and a fascinating personality among the royalties of Europe, and in consequence her life so far has not been left unsung. We know, for instance, that in all her eighteen years there has probably never been a day in which she would not have gladly exchanged her royal lot for that of some ordinary little Dutch girl. Were you to ask her why, she would let you know that it is no fun to be a princess with the prospect of being a queen ahead of you. She has had to study long and laboriously—not alone on the usual lessons of youth, but upon many subjects which do not generally come within the range of a girl of her years—political economy, for example, the national constitution, and the legal relation of royalty to the state. She had no brothers or sisters, and playmates have been sadly wanting. Privileges and pleasures that would belong naturally to every other child have been denied her because of the certain amount of seclusion necessary to keep her away from the reach of partisan influences and court intrigues, until, at least, she was old enough to act upon her own judgment. Despite, how-

ever, all these restrictions, Wilhelmina has grown up to be a wonderfully right-minded and well-balanced girl. What beauty she possesses we may learn in a nutshell from a recent quotation from the American press, which, although a bit irreverent, is all that is characteristic: "Wilhelmina is a member of the house of Orange, but personally she is a 'peach.'"

HER TRAINING FOR RULERSHIP.

"Her very retirement has made it possible for her to be the recipient of an unusually complete and comprehensive education. She knows four or five languages besides her own, and of these English is her favorite, a language which she both reads and speaks with pronounced accuracy. The routine of the day, which previous to her coronation she lived with the utmost regularity, is an interesting one. She rose at 7 the year round, breakfasted at 8, and at 9 promptly commenced her lessons. At half-past 11 she went to drive in an open carriage, regardless of the weather. A luncheon with her mother at half-past 12 was followed by another short drive, this time with the Queen Regent or by one of her governesses. On her return lessons occupied her attention once more until 4 o'clock, after which time she was free to amuse herself at will until half-past 6, when dinner was served. At 10 o'clock each night the little Queen was in bed as regularly as she was out of it the next morning at 7.

"And so the girl grew up in grace and goodness, with the result that no queen in the wide world enjoys a more devoted reverence than is felt for this young sovereign, whose education has been one to fit her to rule with justice, prudence, and wisdom—an education watched over constantly by her mother, who has kept her child pure and true in heart, simple in her tastes, tender in her sympathies, and wise beyond her years in considering questions of state and what involve human progress and prosperity."

WHAT SHOULD THE CITY OWN?

IN the August number of *City Government* are published the addresses before the recent convention of the League of American Municipalities held at Detroit. One of the most effective and pointed of these addresses was that delivered by Mayor Samuel M. Jones, of Toledo, Ohio, on the subject of municipal ownership.

The subjoined extracts make clear the general tenor and purpose of Mayor Jones' remarks:

"Public ownership is only another name for coöperation, and in Great Britain and Europe, where they are older than we, they have come to

understand that the good of the individual can only be found and conserved by seeking the good of all. When Glasgow, Leeds, and Plymouth adopted public ownership of the street railroads they bettered the service, reduced fares, shortened hours of labor, and raised the wages of men. Every city in this or any other country that municipalizes its work of improvement, substitutes day labor for contract, gets better work, pays better wages, and usually shortens the hours of labor, not only making money, but what is infinitely of more importance, making men."

PUBLIC OWNERSHIP AND GOOD CITIZENSHIP.

"The growth of sentiment in favor of public ownership, as seen in this convention of representative men, indicates that the mind of the people is rapidly clarifying on this question. They are beginning to see that no good reason exists why all of the people in the city shall say to a few of the people—the lighting company, the water-works company, the street-railroad company—'Now, all of us will give you [a few of us] the right to get rich off from the rest of us.' Large numbers of the people are beginning to see that the only wealth that is in any sense theirs is the commonwealth, and with instincts that are perfectly natural they are striving to regain possessions that have passed out of their hands, usually through the practice of deception and fraud."

"But the greatest good that we are to find through municipal ownership will be found in the improved quality of our citizenship. . . . The people will learn that they can serve themselves better without profit than a private corporation can serve them with profit as an incentive for their effort."

"The movement for public ownership is government seeking the good of all as against the individual who seeks only his own good. It is a recognition of the fundamental fact that the humblest citizen is entitled to the greatest degree of comfort that associated effort can provide. It is organized love manifesting itself in service. It is patriotism of the highest and purest type. It is a practical demonstration of the brotherhood of man. It is the casting down of idols and the lifting up of ideals. It is dethroning the millionaire and exalting the millions."

WEALTH AND PATRIOTISM.

"I deny any man the right to say that I am making a warfare upon wealth. I am pleading for more wealth. I am pleading that more of our people now doomed to hopeless poverty may share in the wealth that their hands have produced. I plead that the captains of industry,

the men who are honored for their ability as bankers and financiers, as street-railroad magnates, as managers and owners of great railroad corporations, express and telegraph companies—I plead with these as fellow-citizens of a republic of equals; I plead with them from the standpoint of one who loves his fellow-men with a passion that will never die. And I say to you, my brothers, who hold in your hands the wealth of the world, where is your patriotism? Do you love your country? If you do, then you love your fellow-men, and there never was an hour of greater need that you should manifest your love for your fellow-men than the present hour; that you should cease your hoarding of dollars and turn your attention to your idle brothers and devote your ability, not to amassing more wealth for yourselves, but to saving the people, of whom you are one, from the fearful social distress and agony of this hour. I am not asking for charity; we have too much of that. Charity seeks to continue the present order, seeks to palliate the trouble for to-day; but I am pleading for a social order of fair play, a social order of doing as you would be done by; and I deny any man or woman the right to any claim to a love of country unless that man or woman is as ready to serve the country in times of peace as the most devoted soldier in time of war."

"Under the private-contract system of labor in one of the cities of Ohio last year the contractor put laborers in competition with each other for the work of digging a sewer by the foot, with the result, as I was told by the civil engineer of that city, that those laborers received less than fifty cents a day. In another city of Ohio laborers on the street improvement and repair received less than two hundred dollars for their year's work, the labor market being so overstocked that they could only be employed less than half time in order that all might have a little work. Yet in that very same city there are men who used the streets and piled up in profits hundreds of thousands of dollars, wholly unconscious of their guilt in using streets kept up at the cost of the lives of other men."

THE SOCIAL CONSCIENCE.

"Gentlemen of the convention, the great service that is to be performed for the people of this country through the medium of public ownership is the awakening of the social conscience, the arousing of a pure and noble conception of patriotism, the bringing up of a class of men and women too good and too noble to consent to live at the expense of the lives of their fellows. It is because I see the rainbow of promise in public ownership that shall secure for us as a people

this larger realization of liberty that I plead for it. It is because I know that only in the good of all is the real good of the individual to be found that I plead for collective work. It is because I stand like many of you day after day with hopeless and hungry men, pleading that they might be allowed to work, that I raise my voice in their behalf. It is not because I would stir up dissension or cause trouble; it is because I would avoid trouble and point the way to the smooth sea of prosperity that I speak for these men."

TAKE CARE OF THE BOYS!

MR. B. PAUL NEUMAN, a philanthropist who has for several years past conducted a highly successful boys' club in the north of London, contributes to the *Fortnightly Review* for September a very interesting and suggestive paper under the title "Take Care of the Boys." He lays stress upon the more or less admitted failure of many methods adopted for the purpose of saving the boys of our great cities after they have left school.

THE IDEAL BOYS' CLUB.

He thinks that the method by which most good can be done is by the institution of boys' clubs founded on some such ideal as the reformatory at Elmira. The boys' clubs of the ordinary sort Mr. Neuman regards as worse than useless. The boys' club which he wishes to see established is a serious undertaking seriously entered upon, reasonably furnished and fitted, and staffed with workers who mean business and who have counted the cost. Such a club makes large demands on the loyalty and patience of its members. Order must be maintained, lessons must be learned, progress must be tested by examinations, good manners must be insisted upon, and *esprit de corps* cultivated. In order to induce boys to surrender their independence and take up the burdensome features, one of the first conditions is that the club should be overwhelmingly attractive. Mr. Neuman then describes what he considers to be the requisites of a really fine club.

THE RECREATIVE DEPARTMENT.

In the first place, it is absolutely necessary that it should be open every night in the week. Secondly, it should begin with comparatively few members and should grow. To begin with numbers which make personal relations between the managers and boys impossible is simply to court disaster. The best plan is to begin with twenty and to add ten or fifteen new members year by year till the limit of the club's capacity is reached.

In order to make the club attractive there must be constant variety :

"A good gymnasium with first-class apparatus is the alpha but not the omega of the recreative department. Football and cricket can easily be practiced in the gymnasium and will be prodigiously popular. Then roller-skates, racquets and fives, air gun shooting, boxing, fencing and single-stick, billiards, draughts, chess, dominoes and round games; for luxuries, a home trainer, two or three bicycles, and if possible, as a crowning glory, a small tiled plunge-bath. With such an outfit there is not a quarter in London in which you could not fill your club within a week—if you were foolish enough to desire it."

THE EDUCATIVE SIDE.

"Side by side with the recreative, and of at least equal importance, must come the educational department. And here there must be some kind of system. A regular course should be mapped out, with annual examinations, by which the boys' standing in the club may be regulated, a course which might take at least three years to complete, by which time the lads would be able to profit by the opportunities for higher education in technical schools or university extension classes.

"The teaching in these club classes must be good. Boys trained in board schools are accustomed, for the most part, to good teaching, and will be quick to detect ignorance and incompetence. And if it is found impossible to get good voluntary teachers, there is nothing for it but to have paid ones. In many localities it would be possible to utilize the existing evening classes. In fact, the club and the continuation school might supplement each other's deficiencies and work together to their mutual advantage.

NOT SELF-GOVERNED.

"Another point of the first importance is that such a club is not the field for experiments in self-government. There must be no playing at management by committees of the boys themselves. It is of the very essence of a really good club that it should be something more and higher than the boys would plan for themselves. And since ultimately the decision on matters of importance must rest with the manager or managers, it is far better to recognize the fact in the constitution of the club.

"Perhaps it may sharpen the outlines of this sketch if I erect here an ideal club-house to accommodate some hundred and fifty active members and perhaps another fifty seniors—more or less occasional visitors.

THE BUILDING NEEDED.

"On the ground-floor would be the porter's room, where the light refreshments are prepared; the gymnasium, 80 feet by 40 feet; the junior common room, 30 feet by 20 feet, with a couple of half-sized billiard-tables; and a small manager's room, where new boys could be interviewed and unruly ones persuaded or coerced into virtue. On the first floor would be the senior common room (40 feet by 40 feet), with a full-sized billiard-table; the library and reading-room, 30 feet by 20 feet; three or four small class-rooms, and a music-room, 20 feet by 20 feet, with a piano. On the second floor, the caretaker's rooms and perhaps three or four dormitories for occasional use. Then in the basement would be the lavatories, a bath-room (30 feet by 20 feet) fitted with a couple of cabinet Turkish baths and a small plunge, and a dressing-room (20 feet by 20 feet) lined with lockers. Such a building, it must be remembered, could be put to many uses during the day and early evening. For its specific work it would open its doors about 8 o'clock."

BIMANUAL TRAINING.

IN the *International Studio* for September Mr. H. Bloomfield Bare, an English art instructor, makes a plea for the training of children in the use of both hands, rather than of one. He complains that one-handedness has been fostered and cultivated by all classes of society, though ambidexterity would be a positive advantage in countless instances, and at least would lend more grace and readiness to many of our actions. From infancy the child is almost invariably directed to use the right hand in preference to the left, notwithstanding any natural tendency shown to use right and left hands alike.

In the handicrafts ability to use the tools in either hand is often a convenience and advantage to the workman. Mr. Bare estimates that not fewer than two hundred and forty crafts, trades, and occupations, including for example those of the musician and the surgeon, are largely dependent on ambidexterous skill.

A method of bimanual training was put in operation in the public schools of Philadelphia about fourteen years ago. The exercises largely consist of blackboard-drawing with both hands, clay-modeling, and carving in wood. Although this training is not made compulsory, about two thousand boys and girls devote a half day each week to it. The course extends through two years, and instead of its interfering with the progress of other studies, this work is found to be altogether helpful; the deportment, character, and intelli-

gence of the children are said to be greatly improved by it.

NORMAL MUSCULAR DEVELOPMENT.

Mr. Bare emphasizes the marked difference between the control of the muscular movements of the normally healthy child and the control of the same movements exercised by the adult. Experiments by Professor Hancock, of Clark University, upon a large number of children in the first years of school life tend to prove that the larger muscles come first under control, the order of development of control being body, shoulder, arm, forearm, hand. The hand power is latent while the arm power is developing, but the hand power gains and eventually surpasses the arm power.

Mr. Bare shows how blackboard-drawing exercises may be employed to bring into action the whole arm from the shoulder joint. Pupils are trained to swing large circles on the blackboard at a single stroke, first with one hand, then with the other. Patterns are also drawn with both hands working in unison. Complex forms, too, are reversed upside down and done right and left as a training of the eye in measurement and proportion.

A MODERN ROBINSON CRUSOE.

IN the *Wide World Magazine* for September there begins a narrative which is described as the story of the most amazing experiences a man ever lived to tell. M. Louis de Rougemont, the hero of this extraordinary story, is a Frenchman born at Paris in 1844. When he was nineteen years of age he went to the far East to make his fortune, and in 1863 invested his little money with a pearl-fishery adventurer who sailed from Batavia. Louis de Rougemont and his partner, Peter Jensen, sailed in 1863 in a forty-ton schooner named the *Veilland* to go on a pearl-fishing expedition with a crew of Malays off the south of New Guinea.

WITH THE PEARL-FISHERS.

Despite the occasional attacks of devil-fish as terrible as that described by Victor Hugo and the constant presence of sharks, which used to be hunted and captured by the pearl-fishers, the trip was extremely successful. At the end of the season in 1864 the take of pearls was valued by Captain Jensen at £50,000. They had a very fair share of adventures while pursuing their calling in the New Guinea waters, and on one occasion had to use the argument of grapeshot in order to allay the animosity of the natives, after which fishing off New Guinea became impossible. Off they went, therefore, to some

hitherto unexplored fishing-grounds, the precise locality of which M. de Rougemont does not know. There they obtained three magnificent black pearls, a treasure which led Jensen to continue fishing two months after he ought to have stopped and gone home. The season ends usually in May. He went on fishing till July.

SWEPT AWAY BY A STORM.

One morning Jensen and eleven of the crew left the ship in the little boats for the pearl fishery, leaving De Rougemont and a dog alone on board the ship. A great storm arose which swept the ship away, carrying De Rougemont and the dog with it. Of Captain Jensen and the Malays nothing was seen or heard again. For several days the vessel drove before the wind, and when the storm abated De Rougemont tried to steer her westward with the aid of long steering oars, for the rudder had been smashed in the storm. After thirteen days he approached the Australian coast and ran into a narrow strait between Melville and Bathurst Island. There he was attacked by natives, but hoisting the mainsail he stood for the open sea, where for four days he sailed along without incident. But on the fourth day the vessel struck a coral reef and remained fixed.

TWO YEARS ALONE ON A SAND-BANK.

He made a raft and succeeded in reaching a small sand-bank which rose a few feet out of the waters of the lagoon. It was 100 yards long, 10 yards wide, and only 8 feet above the sea at high water. Upon this sand-spit De Rougemont lived for the next two and a half years. He rescued sufficient salvage from the wreck to provide himself with a sleeping-place and with food. Early in his sojourn on this desolate sand-spit he discovered a singular hole in the sand about two feet deep. On scratching the sand he came upon human remains, and in an hour unearthed sixteen complete skeletons. Plenty of sea-birds visited the island, whose eggs supplied him with food. In his youth he had taken a keen interest in archery, and he had with him a bow and arrows, with which he was able to secure birds for his table. A fire he made by striking a steel tomahawk against a stone one; and having once obtained fire, he never allowed it to go out during the whole time he remained on the island.

A CRUSOE WITHOUT CLOTHES.

He went about perfectly nude, but landed from the ship the greater part of the cargo, including its valuable pearl-shells, of which they had over thirty tons on board, the value of which he computed at several thousands. The pearls of course

he removed and buried in the sand, where they remain to this day. By way of amusement he built himself a house of the pearl-shells, the walls of which were 7 feet high, 3 feet thick, and 10 feet long. Finding a stock of seeds in the captain's cabin, he planted them in a soil prepared by mixing the sand with the blood of the turtles which he killed, and very soon had crops of corn from which he was able to obtain straw to thatch his house. He caught plenty of fish, and further supplemented his store by robbing the pelicans of the fish which they brought to land for their young ones. He made a hammock out of shark's hide and generally behaved himself after the fashion of Robinson Crusoe. He had an English Testament which he read aloud until he nearly went mad by worrying himself over theological difficulties. He then set to work to build a boat out of the remains of the ship. He succeeded after seven months in building a heavy sailing boat 12 feet long by 4 feet wide. He launched it and then discovered that he had built it on the wrong side of his island, and that the boat was floating in a lagoon from which there was no access to the open sea. During all this time his dog was his only companion, and by continually talking to him he found him not a bad substitute for a human being.

A PELICAN MAIL SERVICE.

It was seven months after he had been cast away that he first saw a sail on the horizon. Altogether in the course of two and a half years five ships passed the sand-spit, but he failed utterly to attract their attention. Water he never lacked for; when rain-water gave out he condensed sea-water in his kettle. Seeing that pelicans were in the habit of visiting the island and flying away into unknown space, he conceived the idea of utilizing them as messengers. He scratched a message with a sharp nail on the tin disk which forms the bottom of tins of condensed milk. This message he prepared in English, French, Dutch, German, and Italian. He fastened them round the necks of the pelicans by means of fish gut and shark hide. The birds flew away and never returned to the island. Twenty years afterward, on his return to civilization, some old inhabitants of Freemantle told him that a pelican carrying a tin disk round its neck bearing a message in French had been found many years previously by an old boatman on the beach near the mouth of the Swan River.

On one occasion his island was visited by a flock of parrots, who ate up nearly all his green corn and then went off. He made an almanac with piles of shells, keeping account of the years by making notches on his bow.

FOUR DERELICT VISITORS.

After two years he heard his dog barking wildly on the beach. Rushing down to the shore, he saw a catamaran nearing the island upon which several human beings were lying prostrate. When the catamaran came near to the island he saw that it was surrounded by sharks and carried four black persons—a man, a woman, and two boys—all lying prostrate from exhaustion. He drove off the sharks, beached the catamaran, and carried the blacks into his hut. After considerable efforts he succeeded in reviving them. They were very frightened, imagining that they had died and were in the presence of the Great Spirit. He lived with them some time on the island and succeeded in teaching them some English. The man was always sullen and superstitious, so that De Rougemont found it necessary to keep a strict eye upon his movements and to deprive him of spears or other weapons with which he might take his life. After they had been six months on the island they succeeded in dragging the heavy boat across the sand-spit and launching it on the opposite side. They then took on board a liberal allowance of food and water, buried the box of pearls deep in the sand on one end of the island, and leaving the hut of pearl-shells intact, they set sail in the direction indicated by the native woman, who was the most intelligent of the quartette. On the fifth day they sighted a small island, and on the tenth day they reached the Australian mainland.

GREETED AS IF A GOD.

His native fellow-passengers at once landed, and by means of smoke signals announced their arrival to the tribes in the vicinity. An immense crowd speedily assembled and behaved as if he were a god. They then provided him with a wife, a young woman who remained his wife for one day only. On the following day he effected an exchange with the man who had been cast ashore on his island. The man was glad to obtain a younger wife, while De Rougemont was delighted to obtain a companion with whom he could converse in English and who regarded him with dog-like fidelity which more than once saved his life. The locality where he landed was the Cambridge Gulf, on the north-northwest coast of Australia. The natives possess a certain degree of civilization. He settled down among the natives, who held him in high honor. His description of his life among the black men has hardly been commenced, and the story is to be continued month after month until it is finished.

This story of a European who has lived thirty years among savages in a country that has

hitherto never been explored is one without precedent or parallel. The editor of the *Wide World Magazine* declares that he has satisfied himself by the closest investigation of the absolute accuracy of all the statements made by M. de Rougemont.

IN SANTIAGO DURING THE FIGHTING.

THE October *McClure's* publishes some extremely interesting extracts from the diary of the British consul at Santiago, Frederick W. Ramsden, who made this contemporary chronicle of the facts known to the dwellers in the doomed town during the entire period covered by the hostilities. It is a remarkably clear and dispassionate account, which will be valuable as historical material. We quote some extracts of special interest:

HOBSON AND ACOSTA.

"Monday, June 6.—I can't pretend to say how many shots have been fired, but firing was continuous from 8 to half-past 10, and a lot of powder has been wasted. I know now that the first lieutenant of the *Reina Mercedes*, Acosta, a first-rate fellow, has been killed. A shell took off his right leg, but he continued to give orders for the care of the other wounded until he died. Five seamen of that ship have been killed and three dangerously wounded.

"Tuesday, June 7.—To-day we have buried poor Acosta. Hobson, the American officer prisoner of war, and his associates were brought up from the Morro this morning and placed at the Cuartel Reina Mercedes. I had a long talk with him this afternoon and took a list of a few things he wanted. They are treating him very well and give him everything he wants. He feeds better than we can, and though only entitled to the regulation, they will not charge him for anything extra. On entering the barracks the first room on the left is the guard-room, and his is a continuation of that and therefore opens into it. It has a window looking out on where they used to play baseball and toward Caney. He is an exceedingly pleasant fellow, quite a young man, and every one likes him. His daring act has caused all to respect him, and he has won the hearts of his captors. The general gave me a message for him to the effect that they felt proud to have such a brave man among them, and they are really treating him more as a guest than a prisoner. He was much affected when I told him of the death of Acosta, and said: 'Why, he gave me his own cabin and bath to wash in when I got on board, and even lent me his un-

derclothes until I could get my own.' I now hear that no notification was given of the bombardment. They riddled several houses in Smith Cay, and a shell burst in that of Miguel Lopez. I have here a lot of pieces from it—an eight-inch shell. Neither the Buenos' nor Estengers' house was hurt. That of Arnax had a wall knocked down. The inhabitants rushed out to the other side of the island and got under the high land there."

EFFECT OF THE BOMBARDMENT.

"Thursday, June 9.—Yesterday there were twenty ships outside, so perhaps they may begin bombarding again. We shall see. The civil government is now embargoing all the provisions, but as the military had already taken most of them, they won't have much to embargo. Willie now makes our bread and his own every three days, and very good bread it is now that he has got the hang of it. We have flour at home for six weeks, besides some biscuit. Yesterday the public nearly drove me mad. Some one had run a report that a flag of truce had been sent in the day before to say that if the Spanish squadron did not go out within forty-eight hours they would bombard the town itself. I knew there was nothing of the kind, and also I knew that the flag of truce was with reference to an exchange of prisoners, but I could not tell them so. I did my best to assure them it was all nonsense, and promised to go to the military governor to find out; which I did, of course with the anticipated result. All kinds of people had come to me, including judges and military. To-day the panic seems to be over. The news telegrams say that Sampson reports having silenced the forts here without losing a man, although he put his ships at 2,000 meters distant. The Socapa battery fired twenty-seven shots and that of Punta Gorda three. They did not fire more because, between the heavy rain and the smoke from the tremendous fire of the Americans, they could not see; and I myself happened to see the three shots fired from the Punta Gorda battery, two of which were toward the end, and the third was the last shot fired, as I remarked at the time. Moderate people estimate the number of shots fired by the Americans to have been at least 1,500, and others put it at 2,000 or 3,000. Juragua iron bridge was damaged, and at the water-tank, a little further on, the line was obstructed with shells and the rails torn up in part. It seems they fired on the train coming up, but did not stop it. All the ground between here and the Morro and Aguadores is said to be strewn with remains of shell. These were principally six and eight inch, and I have sample

pieces here. The majority of British subjects have finally decided to hold on for the present, and I have cabled the commodore in that sense. Later they may not get the chance to go."

A NARROW ESCAPE FOR THE "PLUTON."

"Saturday, June 18.—At night on the 15th we heard a few shots and one very loud one. An officer of the *Pluton* told me last night that a big shell, which looked like a comet as it came, somewhat slowly, through the air, fell near them, between Smith Cay, and then came traveling in the water by means of a screw and burst just in front of their ship. He says that had theirs been a heavy ship it would have burst it up, but the little *Pluton*, which only draws seven and a half feet, was just lifted out of the water, and every one on board was thrown off his feet, but no one really hurt. The water round was strewn with dead fish, and the concussion was also felt by the *Mercedes*, which was behind the *Pluton*. He says it was a dynamite shell from the pneumatic gun of the *Vesuvius*, which had arrived on that day. Just now, 11 P.M., we heard half a dozen cannon-shot some way off. Miguel Lopez tells me that some of the soldiers stationed on the lower part of the Morro have seen people paddling about in the harbor entrance in tubs (*tinias*). These evidently must be india-rubber duck-shooting punts, in which you sit and have a bag for each leg, with a paddle at the bottom in order to move you in the water. They must be trying to get at the torpedoes in the bay or reconnoitering. Telegrams say that the Spanish Government refuses to exchange Hobson and his men. He will be disappointed. People are now beginning to die in the streets of hunger, and the misery is frightful in spite of so many having gone to the woods. There is no bread and, what is worse, there are no plantains or sweet potatoes nor yams, and of course no foreign potatoes. There is plenty of rice, owing to the fortunate chance of the *Polaria* having been obliged to leave here her Havana cargo. Were it not for that the troops must starve. This latter is what the civilians will have to do, because, of course, there will be no giving in as long as the troops have something to eat. There are no onions, red beans, lard, pork, or anything that comes from abroad, except the *Polaria's* rice and barely (this latter intended for the beer manufactory in Havana). Orders have been issued not to give any maize to horses or pigs, but to keep it for the people. The military in command at San Luis Cristo and other country places will allow nothing to go into town, as they want to keep it all for themselves. The streets are full of beggars going round begging for what formerly was given to the pigs, but now

there is nothing over for the pigs. I saw a thirteen-inch shell which must have been from the *Massachusetts*. Any quantity of shell of all calibers are being picked up intact.

DEATHS FROM STARVATION.

"Friday, June 10.—Yesterday there were only thirteen ships outside, but to-day there are twenty-one. About midday they were firing on the shore near Baiquiri, probably on some of the troops moving round there. We are still in treaty for the *Adula*, but I fear quarantine will stop her coming. We hear from Martinique that at Guantanamo the telegraph clerk was going to Playa del Este to see if he could fix the cable, but we can get no news and have still no communication with Guantanamo; therefore we do not know what may have happened there. Yesterday any quantity of people left for the country, fearing the town bombardment to-day. Provisions are each day scarcer, and very soon there will be no meat, which to-day is at 70 cents per pound, eggs 10 cents each, etc. Nearly all the bakeries have now closed, for want of flour, and they are giving the troops a kind of bread made out of corn meal and flour, but they do not make it properly, and it is as hard as stone, and if they continue to feed them with this they will all very soon be ill. Already there have been some cases of deaths in the streets from starvation. It is reported that the other division of the Spanish fleet is well on its way from Spain, and that as soon as it appears the ships here in the port will go out and meet it, but it is not likely that Admiral Sampson will allow them to join. We are all hoping that the squadron may go, as it is the immediate cause of all our troubles and it is also eating us out. The military to-day bought 4,000 bags of rice of the *Polaria's* cargo stored here, in consequence of the ship having been unable to continue to Havana. A steamer from Halifax with provisions is now due here, but it is hardly to be expected she can get through this blockade. The forts here are really not forts: the Morro has a lot of very ancient guns, and I believe none of them is of any use. Also they may have two or three Krupp guns of small size, of under 2,000 yards' range. The only good guns they have are the two six-inch Hontorias on the Socapa earthwork battery and another Hontoria mounted after the bombardment on the Punta Gorda battery. They have three mortars of 800 yards' range on this battery, and they have also another Hontoria not yet taken up the hill and, of course, not mounted. These Hontorias were taken out of the *Reina Mercedes*. Therefore the only guns to oppose the attacking squadron were the two on Socapa battery."

MR. CARLISLE'S ARGUMENT AGAINST EXPANSION.

IN the October *Harper's* appears from the pen of ex-Secretary John G. Carlisle an earnest article on "Our Future Policy," in which he is warm in his opposition to the retention by the United States of the island territories now in doubt. He thinks that our ante-bellum protestations and our pledges in the maintenance of the Monroe doctrine are sufficient reasons for retiring from the war without the acquisition of the Philippines and the Ladrões. This question is a far larger one and more important than any other the war has aroused, a question which, if answered wrongly, may, he thinks, "prove fatal to the republican institutions under which we now live."

"But even if we were untrammelled by pledges, expressed or implied, or by our past declarations concerning the acquisition of territory in this hemisphere by other nations, there are abundant reasons, affecting our own economic and political interests, why we should not repudiate the conservative and safe policy which has made us the most compact, homogeneous, and progressive country in the world, and enter upon an unjustifiable and dangerous contest for dominion and power beyond the natural limits of our State and Federal systems of government—a contest in which success would prove to be the greatest calamity that could befall us as a nation. That our political institutions were not designed for the government of dependent colonies and provinces is a proposition which scarcely admits of discussion. This was intended to be a free republic, composed of self-governing States and intelligent, law-abiding, and liberty-loving people; and no one has ever heretofore supposed that any territory or community could be rightfully governed by the central authority, except for such period as might be necessary to prepare it for admission into the Union upon a footing of perfect equality with each of the other States.

GOVERNMENT OF CONQUERED TERRITORY.

"The un-American theory that Congress or the executive can permanently hold and govern any part of the United States in such manner as it or he may see proper is a necessary feature of the imperialism which now threatens the country; for it is evident that if this theory cannot be practically applied to the proposed additions to our territory, their possession will be a perpetual menace to our institutions. A large majority of the population which the advocates of conquest and annexation propose to incorporate by force into the body of American citizenship—the Chinese, Malays, half-breeds,

native pagans, and others—are not only wholly unfit to govern themselves, but incapable of being successfully governed under our free Constitution. If, however, territory is acquired, it must be governed by either direct Congressional legislation or by the inhabitants themselves, under such supervision and control as Congress can constitutionally exercise. At the close of the war the title to all the territory actually held in subjection by our military forces will, unless otherwise provided by stipulation or treaty, be vested in the United States for all public and political purposes. During the war, and while held by the military authorities, it will be subject to the laws of war and may be governed accordingly, because it is still enemy's country; and if a *de facto* government has been established by the military authorities during the occupation and is in existence when peace is concluded, that government may be continued for a reasonable time afterward, in order that persons and property may be protected until the laws of the new sovereign can be extended over it. This exceptional form of government is justifiable only on the ground of necessity, and consequently it can be rightfully continued only for a sufficient time to enable the new proprietor to establish its own civil authority over the conquest or cession.

NO DESPOTISM IN TIME OF PEACE.

"But this *de facto* military government cannot, after the war is over, exercise any authority inconsistent with the Constitution of the United States. There is no room for a military despotism or for the exercise of arbitrary power by the civil authorities anywhere within the jurisdiction of the United States in time of peace; and whenever the Philippine Islands, Puerto Rico, or other islands shall become part of our territory, their inhabitants will be entitled to all the rights, privileges, and immunities secured to the people by the Constitution. While held by the military forces, after the cessation of hostilities, the officials representing the *de facto* government may administer the local affairs and establish rules and regulations for the preservation of peace and order, but the fundamental rights of the people must be respected.

"It cannot be admitted," says the Supreme Court in a well-considered case, "that the King of Spain could, by treaty or otherwise, impart to the United States any of his royal prerogatives; and much less can it be admitted that they have capacity to receive or power to exercise them. Every nation acquiring territory, by treaty or otherwise, must hold it subject to the Constitution and laws of its own government, and not according to those of the government ceding it."

WHAT TRADES MAY BE ARISTOCRATIC?

IN the October *Cosmopolitan* Prof. Harry Thurston Peck has a clever essay on "The New American Aristocracy," in the course of which he takes occasion to separate those trades whose exponents may hope to "be received" from those beyond the pale—a set of distinctions curious enough in the mystery of their derivation.

"Thus, as in England, we find that banking is entirely respectable; and likewise stock-broking, though in England this is not the case. Railroads are highly thought of, and so are iron and gas and coal; but pork and oil and 'dry goods' require at least one generation to make them socially acceptable. Patent medicines are doubtful, and boots and shoes are quite impossible; but leather and soap have been let in, and tobacco is all right. You may publish books, and, for that matter, you may even write them. You may be a jeweler or a decorator or an agent for a foreign steamship line. You may tout for a new brand of champagne. In Chicago you may keep a hotel and still entertain dukes and princes as your private guests; but in New York the case is different, for here hotel-keeping is ruled out. Yet if you have made a fortune from your hostelry and are then obliging enough to die, your widow may become a social leader and your children may marry any one they please."

THE FLY IN THE OINTMENT.

Professor Peck admits the presence of an American aristocracy:

"A marvelous amount of zeal and patience and money went to the making of it. Those who are of it may well be proud of their achievement, for from a spectacular point of view the thing is really a remarkable success; and now that they have found in Mr. Richard Harding Davis a gifted writer to describe their millinery and their manners, and in Mr. Gibson an artist to depict their physical perfections, it must surely seem as though they ought to be content.

"Unfortunately there appears to be somewhere concealed a crumpled rose-leaf, a fatal fly within the ointment. The fact that is just now so terribly depressing to our ready-made patricians is

the lack of any general recognition from the common herd, a general refusal to take them at all seriously. And this is fatal to an aristocratic ideal. It is all very well to feel intensely that you are a most superior person and that you are better than most of those you meet, but if you can't get them to think so too, you will only half enjoy your lofty station; you will very often be made quite unhappy. When you go forth expecting to receive on every hand the deference due to your patrician rank and aristocratic manner, and find that nearly every one regards you simply as a joke, what is the use of being a patrician? If the comic papers make all manner of fun of you and you are the subject of 'gags' upon the stage; if coarse, unfeeling persons of the lower orders attract your attention by saying 'Hey there!' and utterly forget to touch their hats and call you 'sir,' you might almost as well be just an ordinary plebeian; for the true joy of being an aristocrat comes from the recognition of the fact by others—from the admission by them of your superiority and of their own inferiority. This is what greatly troubles our new aristocracy. When its members are seated in the corner of a club smoking-room with deferential servants to minister to their wants and with only their fellow-aristocrats about them, then they can imagine for the moment that the thing is real, and they can feel something of the splendid high-bred *nonchalance* of a Strathmore or a Bertie Cecil; but when they chance to find themselves among a miscellaneous crowd they have a most unhappy hunted look, as of a rabbit suddenly let loose in the middle of a roadway. This question of recognition is really the question on which the whole subject turns. You can with unlimited money create a sort of aristocracy. You can secure all the externals; you can accurately imitate the internal life. But how are you going to get the world at large to accept it and give it a definite place in the national system? In other words, what are the conditions necessary to convert a ready-made and money-made aristocracy into one deserving to be perpetuated? This is really a most interesting question and one that is worthy of some serious reflection."



THE PERIODICALS REVIEWED.

THE CENTURY MAGAZINE.

THE October *Century* begins with an unusually vivid and readable sketch of Edouard Detaille, written by Armand Dayot, Chief Inspector of Fine Arts in Paris, and illustrated with many striking reproductions of Detaille's types of soldiers, French, German, and Russian. M. Dayot takes Detaille's artistic mission very seriously indeed. Never, he says, was the soul of artist more completely reflected in his work. And he describes the beautiful paintings of the French army as having been composed under a majestic and solemn grandeur of style, with a background of burning patriotism, deep historical conscientiousness, and almost boyish enthusiasm.

In the domain of popular science there is an interesting essay, by Prof. George H. Darwin, on the phenomenon of "Bores"—the great waves which are seen in the estuaries where broad flats make the tide rise with great rapidity.

W. F. Bailey gives an account of the thrilling experiences of the old-time "Pony Express" institution, illustrated with some finely dramatic pictures of the vicissitudes of pony expressing by Fernand Lungren.

Prof. Dean C. Worcester discusses "Some Knotty Problems of the Philippines," and there are further extracts from the journal of Jonathan S. Jenkins, the American painter of miniatures, entitled "Life and Society in Old Cuba."

Dr. Albert Shaw writes of the Omaha Exposition and the conditions of life in Nebraska and Kansas which led up to it, under the title "The Trans-Mississippians and Their Fair at Omaha." He explains that the financial disrepute from which Kansas and Nebraska have suffered in the last few years should by no means apply to all of those States, unhomogeneous as they are in climate and soil. Eastern Nebraska and eastern Kansas are not at all different from western Missouri and western Iowa, where corn, wheat, oats, and cultivated hay can be raised abundantly. But in arguing from the eastern portions to the western, the population of western Nebraska and Kansas made a huge mistake in supposing that these staple crops could be raised. This population went ahead as if crops were certain, and prepared for a ready-made civilization based on this certainty. After the boom was well on towns had been laid out, county, school, and municipal bonds sold, extensive farm machinery bought, and other indebtedness entered into. It was found that the cereals would not mature profitably in the vast lands which had been taken up. These Western lands were, however, well adapted for cattle-raising, and after a period of intense stress, when this disappointed population was settling down to hard reality, Kansas and Nebraska are entering on a new era of prosperity. In the western parts hundreds of millions of dollars' worth of cattle are raised to be sold through the clearing-house stock-yards of Omaha and Kansas City to the crop-raising farmers, who fatten them and supply all America with beef. Dr. Shaw is reasonably optimistic in his view of present conditions in these two much-harassed States, and thinks that the time has really come when the Kansas and Nebraska farmer is paying his debts instead of borrowing more

money. If he does wish to borrow for legitimate purposes he can do so at the local banks at 6 per cent., which is a great improvement over the old *régime*. Dr. Shaw thinks there is a definite political tendency to lose sight of the silver question, now that this era of comparatively good times has set in. The outward and visible sign of this prosperous era is the Omaha Exposition. Dr. Shaw proceeds to describe the brave show of cattle exhibits, farm machinery, tree-planting, dairy products, flax-producing, and sugar-beet culture which appears now at Omaha. Of the sugar-beet culture he says it is not making the farmers rich, but it has given a touch of variety to their output, and above all it is a sure crop. About the two best factories which he mentions there is a radius in each instance of fifteen miles, in which every farmer raises from five to twenty acres of beets, producing an average of twenty tons an acre, for which he receives five dollars a ton.

Prof. William M. Sloane, who was the author of the *Century's* "Life of Napoleon Bonaparte," writes on Bismarck, giving his personal and collected impressions of the great German statesman.

HARPER'S MAGAZINE.

THE article on "The Santiago Campaign" by Caspar Whitney in the October *Harper's* is noticed in another department.

The principal travel sketch in this number is entitled "On the Roof of the World," and is composed of notes on a journey through Asia by Sven Hedin. During the three and a half years of his journeyings this traveler had many adventures and difficulties, and became acquainted with regions which had been practically unknown to occidentals.

Ex-Secretary Carlisle's paper on "Our Future Policy" is decidedly conservative and anti-imperialistic. It welcomes an Anglo-American understanding, but not a formal alliance. Mr. Carlisle is unalterably opposed to our territorial expansion in the Pacific. We have quoted from his paper in our "Leading Articles."

Rev. Dr. William E. Griffis contributes an interesting *résumé* of the doings of our navy in Asiatic waters, beginning with early visits to China and Japan and ending with Admiral Dewey's conquest of Manila. Our naval history in the far East has not been without its stirring episodes, as for example the famous action of Commodore Tattnall, who declared that "blood was thicker than water" and went to the aid of British men-of-war in Chinese waters.

Mr. George W. Smalley concludes his reminiscent papers on Mr. Gladstone. While recognizing the passionate and emotional quality which made Gladstone a great orator, Mr. Smalley declares that the man himself was greater than his oratory, greater than his deeds:

"It is not what he did, but what he was, which was felt most deeply and will be longest remembered. Gladstone the man, the extraordinary being who for more than sixty years fascinated the world in which he lived, overmastered it, compelled other men to do his will because he was a greater force than they, because he had qualities they had not, because he was of other

fiber, of other mold, of loftier, broader, nobler nature than almost any of his time—that is the Gladstone before whom the world has bowed. It is the Gladstone whose memory his countrymen and ours in all time to come will treasure as a possession like none other."

SCRIBNER'S MAGAZINE.

IN our department of "Leading Articles of the Month" we quote from Mr. Richard Harding Davis' account of "The Battle of San Juan" in the October *Scribner's*. In the same number there is a description of the conduct of the American regulars at El Caney, by Capt. Arthur H. Lee, R.A., British military *attaché*. Mr. James F. Archibald writes on "The Day of the Surrender of Santiago."

Mr. John R. Spears describes the methods of naval news-getting employed by the great New York papers during the war with Spain. After naming some of the items of daily expense to which the papers were put during the war, Mr. Spears says:

"The reader of commercial instincts is likely to ask if the expense brought a profitable return, and I can say emphatically that in the narrow sense of the question it did not. But so far as we were able to sustain an old-time reputation for accuracy, expedition, and completeness in such matters—if we were, indeed, able to add to that reputation a bit—then the money so spent was better than gold bonds in the vaults, and the efforts made more satisfactory than any known to a lifetime spent in the newspaper business."

Mr. Walter A. Wyckoff continues the story of his journeyings as a common laborer from Chicago to Denver. Mr. Henry Cabot Lodge is approaching the end of his "Story of the Revolution," narrating in this number the episode of Arnold's treason. A brief essay on "American Popularity" in Europe is contributed by Aline Gorren.

THE COSMOPOLITAN MAGAZINE.

THE opening article in the *Cosmopolitan* for October is an account of "The Trans-Mississippi Exposition" at Omaha by Octave Thanet (Miss Alice French). The pictures illustrate the architecture of the exposition, which is a conscious imitation of the type developed at the World's Fair of 1893. There are also several photographs of the Indian exhibit, which is one of the chief attractions of the fair. Miss French votes the exposition a complete success, and declares that with the single exception of the Chicago fair it is "the finest, the most interesting, and the most wonderful, as well as the most beautiful, of American expositions."

In the series of articles on "Great Problems of Organization" Mr. Theodore Dreiser describes "The Chicago Packing Industry." Mr. Dreiser states that the plant of the Stockyards Company—exclusive of its great packing establishments—represents about \$5,000,000, and 1,000 employees work for the company. This should not be confused with the statistics of individual firms in the grounds. For example, the Armour plant is worth many more millions, and 6,000 men work for him alone. The growth of the traffic since the organization of the Stockyards Company can be understood from the statistics of that time and the present. In 1865, for instance, the number of cattle packed was 27,173; in 1897, 2,506,185; the number of hogs packed in 1865 was 507,355 and in 1897 4,873,467. A vast number of

cattle are received and shipped out alive. The statistics show that in 1865 330,301 and in 1897 3,884,280 cattle were handled. The figures for hogs are 8,078,095 in 1897, as against 849,311 in 1865. Add to this for 1897 the receipt of over 2,300,000 sheep, 100,000 horses, and nearly 300,000 calves, and note that there were shipped out, cattle, 1,350,000, calves, 82,000, hogs, over 2,000,000, and over 1,000,000 sheep and horses, and an estimate can be had of the immense business interests that are cared for daily by this company.

Mr. S. T. Willis describes the great free-lecture system conducted under the auspices of the New York City Board of Education. Under this system last season 1,860 lectures were given to a total attendance (estimated) of 698,200 people. During the last eight years the increase of attendance at the lectures had been more than sixteen-fold and in the number of lectures about ten-fold. Dr. Leipziger, the superintendent of this work, recently said: "There are thousands of men and women who find at these lectures stimulus and guidance, and who carry on by means of this stimulus their higher education with their every-day work."

MCCLURE'S MAGAZINE.

FROM the October number of *McClure's* we have selected the article by Mr. Stephen Bonsal, who was an eye-witness of the fighting before Santiago, for notice in our department of "Leading Articles," and also the diary of the late Consul Ramsden at Santiago.

One of the most striking features of this number of *McClure's* is Mr. Edward A. Fitz Gerald's story of the climb to the summit of Aconcagua, the highest mountain in America. Mr. Fitz Gerald, who already had a high reputation as a mountain climber, was accompanied in his venture by Zurbriggen, his well-tried guide, and two others. His account of the sufferings which the party endured at altitudes of from 21,000 to 23,000 feet ought to be sufficient to deter all inexperienced persons from attempting such an ascent. They not only had great trouble in breathing, but were overcome by nausea, and became so enfeebled that for a time their lives were in great peril. Unfortunately the summit of the mountain was enveloped in clouds and snow was falling, so that it was impossible to make observations of any value. But six days later the summit of Aconcagua was reached a second time by members of Mr. Fitz Gerald's party. On this occasion the weather was favorable, and it was possible to make interesting and important observations. These will be described in a second paper by Mr. Fitz Gerald, soon to be published in *McClure's*.

A very brief paper by Elsie Reasoner, entitled "What a Young Girl Saw at Siboney," bears interesting testimony to the quiet courage of the American soldiers after the terrible fighting around Santiago, when many were brought to the hospitals in a dying condition.

Assistant Secretary of the Treasury Vanderlip contributes an article on "The Cost of the War," in which he makes a comparison between the daily cost of our own Civil War and that of the Spanish-American War, showing that the latter was only about 50 per cent. that of the former, though of course only 25,000 men were engaged in the Spanish-American War, while in the Civil War several times that number were engaged. He maintains that the average daily cost of the Franco-Prussian War to the successful Germans was about \$4,000,000, or an average larger in proportion than the

cost of either our Civil War or the recent Spanish-American War.

There is an interesting sketch of "The Two Admirals," Porter and Farragut, based on memoranda furnished by the son of Admiral Porter. It is not very generally known, we believe, that Porter, when a midshipman, was imprisoned in Morro Castle, in Havana, as a result of participation in the war between Mexico and Spain, in which his father commanded the Mexican navy. To his dying hour it is said to have been Porter's dearest wish to command a fleet which should wipe Morro Castle and Spanish rule from this quarter of the earth.

Mr. William Allen White contributes a pleasant "Appreciation of the West," apropos of the Omaha Exposition. The trans-Mississippi life, he thinks, must be a strange life save to the kinsmen of the old Angles and Saxons. "To Frenchmen, to the Spaniard, to the Arab, it must seem odd to find several millions of people working six days in the week on farms, in offices, at benches, on railroads, in stores, and to know that in the whole domain, covering more territory than the half of Europe, is no place where class lines are drawn, where either the prince or the pauper abides. Every tub stands on its own bottom, and if there is any caste, the spendthrift is the only outcast and the dishonest debtor is the only man from whom the people flee as from the unclean."

THE LADIES' HOME JOURNAL.

ELSEWHERE we quote from the paper on "The Personal Side of Richard Wagner," by Houston S. Chamberlain, appearing in the October number of the *Ladies' Home Journal*.

This number contains Gen. A. W. Greely's personal narrative of his long fight for life in the arctic regions.

Mr. William Perrine describes John Wanamaker's famous Bethany Sunday-School in Philadelphia. This writer says that the weekly teaching of the Bible lesson has become for Mr. Wanamaker perhaps the chief pleasure of his later years. "There are few clergymen who surpass him in this style of discourse. Indeed, his natural gifts for it were so obvious in his youth that at one time he was induced to consider seriously the question of studying for the ministry. It is fresh, breezy, practically suggestive, brightly and sometimes eloquently expressed, accompanied by anecdotes and also by striking images or metaphors in which lately his mind seems to have become luxuriant."

It would seem as if "The Anecdotal Side of Mark Twain" had been thoroughly exploited in the newspapers and magazines during the past thirty years, but it is claimed in behalf of the stories contributed to this number of the *Journal* by the friends of the great humorist that they are all "now published for the first time." One of the quaintest of these tales relates to the consul-general at Frankfort, Germany, and explains how his official head was saved by the intervention of Mr. Clemens, aided and abetted by no less a personage than Miss Ruth Cleveland, to whom Mr. Clemens addressed a note in which he said all that needed to be said about the case, and what is more important, succeeded in carrying his point.

"The Boy of Ten Phenomenal Fingers," Joseph Hofmann, is sketched from life by Mary B. Mullet. Some quotations from Hofmann's sayings indicate that he is something of a philosopher as well as an artist.

"People wonder how I will play when I have seen more of life," he said, smiling a little scornfully. "Life and music are not the same things, and life has no direct influence necessarily on music. Music of the highest kind does not depict life—that is, not the outward details of living. It should not be so that you can say to yourself: 'This music represents a man who is going for a walk in the woods. Now he gets up; now he puts on his hat; now he opens the door; now he is going downstairs.' That is not music. There may be in music the spirit of a walk in the woods, the feeling of it all. Now, if I am capable of being touched by that spirit it will appeal to me in the music, even though I may never have taken such a walk. If I did not have within me the capacity of being touched by that spirit I might walk in the woods all my life and yet remain insensible to it."

MUNSEY'S MAGAZINE.

THE most prominent feature of *Munsey's* for October is the installment of "War Time Snap Shots," a series of photographs illustrating the different episodes of the Santiago campaign, with many portraits of the participating officers. The serial history of the war with Spain, by Richard H. Titherington, is also begun in this number. The history is illustrated from rare prints and maps.

Theodore Schwarz contributes a brief study of "Bismarck's Place in History." "New York's Riverside Park" is the subject of an illustrated article by Thomas Cady, and an article written just before his death by the late Maj. Moses P. Handy outlines the attractions and importance of the Paris Exposition of 1900.

In an article on "The Future of the English Language" Prof. Brander Matthews declares that the dominant influence in deciding what the future of English shall be must come from the United States. "The English of the future," he says, "will be the English that we shall use here in the United States; and it is for us to hand it down to our children fitted for the service it is to render."

"This task is ours, not to be undertaken boastfully or vaingloriously or in any spirit of provincial self-assertion on the one hand or of colonial self-depreciation on the other, but with a full sense of the burden imposed upon us and of the privilege that accompanies it. It is our duty to do what we can to keep our English speech fresh and vigorous, to help it draw new life and power from every proper source, to resist all the attempts of pedants to cramp it and restrain its healthy growth, and to urge along the simplification of its grammar and its orthography, so that it shall be ready against the day when it is really a world language."

THE NEW ENGLAND MAGAZINE.

THE opening article in the October number of the *New England* is an illustrated description of the famous "Arnold Arboretum" at Jamaica Plain, near Boston. This park of two hundred and twenty-two acres forms a part of the municipal park system, and is at the same time an outdoor school of arboriculture, a botanical museum, and a department of Harvard University. It is a unique institution. The arrangement under which the arboretum is maintained is thus described:

"The arboretum as we know it is due to a sort of

partnership entered into by Harvard University and the city of Boston. In consideration of its value as a part of the park system and its location with relation to the other parks, a contract was drawn up which provided that the city should construct all the roads and paths through the place and maintain them in good order, and should police the grounds, while the university assumed the entire care and maintenance of the remaining portion. The contract further provides that the arboretum shall be maintained in this place for nine hundred and ninety-nine years, the city having taken the land by right of eminent domain and having leased it back to the university for that picturesque term. According to the director, Prof. Charles Sprague Sargent, of the chair of arboriculture at Harvard University, and author of 'The Sylva of North America,' trees have never been planted with better promise of undisturbed old age. The arboretum will eventually contain every species and variety of tree and shrub that will flourish in this climate. Much of the planting has been done, and the trees have been given the most favorable conditions possible for their perfect growth and development."

The recent efforts to secure the preservation of the Adirondack forests in New York State are described in an illustrated article by Cuyler Reynolds. Mr. W. D. Lighthall contributes an illustrated article on the city of Montreal.

LIPPINCOTT'S MAGAZINE.

IN the October *Lippincott's* Mr. Fred. Perry Powers writes on "War and Trade." He indulges in this rather bellicose intimation to other powers:

"The maxim that trade follows the flag covers more error than truth. It is oftener the case that the flag follows trade. But if foreign nations are going to exclude us from trade with China and Africa on the same terms as their own subjects, we have got to make a way for trade by sending the flag with its usual accompaniments of breech-loaders. If the United States and England would not be driven out of Chinese trade by the gradual extension of Russian and French frontiers, they will have to keep the door open by inserting the muzzle of a cannon into it. England has got her cannon mounted at Wei-Hai-Wei and Hong Kong; Manila is not so near as would be desirable, but it will do very well as a place for our guns."

In a discussion of "Declarations of War," as regards the order of procedure Mr. Lawrence Irwell says:

"Steam and the electric telegraph have now made communication so rapid and the state of organization is now so complete that two nations cannot approach a rupture without being fully aware of it. The withdrawal or dismissal of a minister is ample warning of how matters stand. Written declarations, proclamations, and manifestoes are chiefly valuable as bringing under the notice of nations other than the disputants the existence of a state of war which demands their observance of the rules of neutrality; but any act of war, not preceded by declaration, raises a presumption of the fact of war which neutrals must not disregard."

Mrs. Helen C. Candee writes on "Oklahoma Claims," Louise M. Hadley on "Artillery, Ancient and Modern," George J. Varney on "Military Balloons," Dr. Charles C. Abbott "In Defense of Desolation," and Nina R. Allen on "Gray Eyes in Fiction."

THE BOOKMAN.

WE have quoted elsewhere at some length from the article on "Bismarck as an Editor" in the October *Bookman*.

In this number Mr. Norman Hapgood begins his department entitled "The Drama of the Month," which promises to be an interesting and a helpful survey of theatrical developments in New York City.

Melville Joyce contributes the first installment of a paper on "The Dawn of the Russian Novel." Of Russian realism he says:

"The Russians have adapted the modern realistic or naturalistic form of novel, around which so many storms have raged, to new and great uses; and it is to their credit that they, backward in all else and indebted to the west of Europe for every intellectual stimulus, have produced and fashioned a marvelous instrument of culture and progress. Nothing in either the literatures of France, Germany, or England can equal this particular product of the Russian soil. The novel in these countries has not had the same function to fulfill—that is, to enlighten, comfort, counsel, and reform. 'To amuse' is not even taken into consideration."

In the series on "Living Continental Critics" this month's article is devoted to Anatole France. The writer, Mr. Frederick Taber Cooper, is enthusiastic over M. France's style. "With the one exception of Maurice Barrès," he says, "there is no living French writer who so uniformly gives the impression that we are reading exquisitely smooth and faultless French prose, certainly none who can more safely be taken as a model."

THE ATLANTIC MONTHLY.

THE October *Atlantic Monthly* opens with two essays on the relations of England and America, the first by Carl Schurz, entitled "The Anglo-American Friendship," in which he supports quite thoroughly the views of Mr. James Bryce, both as to the general plan and the specific steps to be taken first; and the second by A. V. Dicey, entitled "England and America," who writes as enthusiastically in favor of the general plan of an Anglo-American union; but he considers it unlikely that the present generation will ever witness the reunion of the whole English people. It is impossible, however, he says, to forego the dream or the hope that a growing sense of essential unity may ultimately give birth to some scheme of common citizenship.

The second installment of the "Unpublished Letters of Carlyle" appear in this number and confirm the belief that they constitute a very considerable literary find. Mark H. Liddell writes an essay on "Botching Shakespeare," in which he shows how the average reader interprets the Elizabethan words to suit his own thoughts rather than their own meaning, and he asks seriously: "As his language grows more dim to our sense and we continue to be careless about learning it, will not the time come when Shakespeare will be little more than a great name in our literature?"

Prince Kropotkin concludes "The Autobiography of a Revolutionist" in this number, and there are, beside the serials, a bird and flower sketch by Bradford Torrey and a characteristically fine essay by Woodrow Wilson on Walter Bagehot, whom he writes of under the title, "A Wit and a Seer." Horace N. Fisher discusses "The Development of Our Foreign Policy," and comes to the

conclusion concerning the Philippines that "whether we like it or not, of all the nations of the world to-day the United States is the only power which can take these islands and develop them without disturbing the political-commercial equilibrium in the far East." Kuno Francke writes on "Bismarck as a National Type," and Irving Babbitt discusses "The Correspondence of George Sand."

THE NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW.

IN our department of "Leading Articles" we have quoted from the Hon. John Barrett's discussion of the Philippines problem, from Mr. M. W. Hazeltine's paper on the disposition of Cuba, and from Mr. C. A. Conant's exposition of the economics involved in "imperialism," each of which appears in the September number of the *North American*.

Writing on "Leprosy and the Hawaiian Annexation," Dr. Burnside Foster says that probably not less than six thousand of the inhabitants of the new territory are afflicted with this horrible malady, that a leprosy commission should be named by our Government to make a census of Hawaiian lepers and to see that all afflicted persons are segregated, and that measures should at once be taken to educate the population in regard to the dangers of infection and the precautions to be taken.

Sir Richard Temple makes a strong presentation of facts which tend to demonstrate the superior strength of an Anglo-American combination as compared with a European combination. In the event of any necessity arising for testing force as between two such combinations the question would be one of sea force rather than of land force.

"In any conceivable attempt to invade England, the matter would be one wholly of sea force. In any attempt to invade India or China, the matter would be one of land force primarily in the front, but fundamentally one of sea force. On neither ocean could the American coast be even approached. For Britain, the great advantages would be the keeping open of the Atlantic for her food supply by the coöperation she would have from the eastern side of the United States and the aid she would receive from the western side of the United States in the protection of their common interests in China and the far East. For the European combination the question would be how they could maintain their colonial possessions in Africa, or Asia, or Australasia in the face of an Anglo-American combination."

Señor Castelar's second paper on Bismarck is far from complimentary to the dead statesman. The writer declares that Bismarck's work was founded upon contradictions in both domestic and foreign policy. For example, after having moved heaven and earth to acquire territories in Africa and thus make Germany a great colonial power, he found himself compelled to exchange an empire in Zanzibar for an insignificant islet in the German Ocean.

"His experience was similar in regard to his personal power, so tenaciously and persistently defended by him against all and everything. He championed the old principle of the imperial will as the basis of the state and as the foundation of the law, regarding the legislature as simply a consulting body. He made the *Kaisers* his gods, and he flattered them to such an extent that he was able to induce them to seize the crown from the altar and place it upon their own heads as

though by divine right. But there came a day when imperial power, in order to assert its assumed divinity and omnipotence, sacrificed upon its altars no less a victim than the chancellor himself."

In this number is begun the publication of correspondence between Bismarck and Motley. Motley's first letter is dated at Vienna, in 1862, and relates chiefly to the American Civil War then in progress.

Richard Burton contributes an essay on "Literature for Children," John J. Clancy, M.P., writes on "The Latest Reform in Ireland," and Dr. C. M. Blackford, Jr., describes the modern agencies and methods of sea-exploration.

THE FORUM.

FROM the September *Forum* we have selected the Hon. John R. Procter's article on "Isolation or Imperialism" and the Hon. Frank A. Vanderlip's summary of the "Lessons of Our War Loan" for quotation in another department.

Professor Hergesell, who is president of the International Aeronautical Commission, describes the function of the balloon in warfare. He says that a well-equipped and carefully organized aeronautic troop would have been of the greatest value to the American army in the war with Spain.

"Had some of the American vessels engaged in blockading the harbors of Cuba been equipped with a complete kite-balloon outfit, the task of investment would have been greatly facilitated, the enemy's fortifications would have been immediately exposed to view, and the position and number of the Spanish boats at once definitely ascertained."

Mr. Frederick Palmer, who has recently returned from Dawson City, writes on "The Pilgrimage to the Klondike and Its Outcome." He says that the Klondike pilgrims have learned that a fortune cannot be made in a hurry any more easily there than elsewhere, but the future of the region as a great gold-producing country seems assured; the new trading companies promise cheaper food and cheaper transportation, and capital, skill, and machinery combined will be able to work profitably claims which are almost untouched at present.

In a paper on "Democratic Art" Prof. Oscar L. Triggs says:

"Aristocratic art is typical: it lays aside the common attributes and seeks the type-forms. Democratic art is individual and real: it accepts the personal view and invests common attributes with meaning. The one gives unity to the beautiful: the other expands and diversifies it. The one, being reminiscent, is static; the other, being prospective, is dynamic. The one harmonizes what is given: the other suggests what is to be. The note of the one is despair: that of the other is triumph and joy. The one is bound: the other is free."

Prof. Josiah Royce recommends the employment of trained "consulting psychologists" as adjuncts of city school systems. He says that good, all-round psychologists, versed in the new methods of investigation, may be obtained, these days, at from fifteen hundred dollars a year upward. This is a hint to school superintendents. Such a functionary would assist teachers in the observation of school-room data.

Mr. Frederick V. Colville, of the United States Department of Agriculture, contributes a suggestive article on "Our Public Grazing Lands," in which he

proposes that such lands be leased by the Government, under the supervision of resident officials in each State responsible to a central official in Washington.

The Hon. Truxton Beale writes on "Our Interest in the Next Congress of the Powers," Mr. Wallace McCamant on "The Significance of the Oregon Election," Mr. W. J. McGee on "The Course of Human Development," Mr. J. A. Latcha on "Gold and Other Resources of the Far West," and Gustav Kobbé contributes a criticism of the plays of Arthur Wing Pinero.

THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

IN the *Nineteenth Century* the first place is given to a poem by Mr. Stephen Phillips, in which, greatly daring, he ventures to challenge comparison with the great masters of song by choosing as his theme "Endymion." Higher praise could not be given to the poem than to say that its author has no reason to regret the audacity of his choice. It is the best poem that has appeared in periodical literature for a very long time.

MR. FROUDE AS WRITER AND HISTORIAN.

Mr. Frederic Harrison, in a paper entitled "The Historical Method of J. A. Froude," says in effect that it is difficult, if not impossible, to praise Mr. Froude too highly as a man of letters for the fascination of his style and for his freedom from the seven deadly sins of letters; but, on the other hand, for his slatternly inaccuracy and inveracity and lack of judgment as a historian nothing too bad can be said.

A JEWISH KINGDOM IN PALESTINE.

Mr. Oswald Simon, writing on "The Return of the Jews to Palestine," raises a strong protest against political Zionism. He maintains that the movement has not the support of the orthodox rabbis, and that while it depends for its success upon an appeal to religious enthusiasm, it is engineered by men who have no religious convictions. His view is that the Jews have a far wider mission than that of founding a fifteenth-rate state in a corner of Syria, which is not large enough to hold more than the population of Wales. He says:

"The message of religious truth has come out of Zion and is to spread throughout the four quarters of the globe. Israel is a standing priesthood to minister to mankind. It is an order which was founded in Zion, but its mission is not a local one. It is universal. Any scheme which narrowed the confines of Judaism to one geographical locale would be a retrogression—and indeed a stifling of the fuller aspirations of the faith."

Hence his word to the Zionist leaders is:

"Colonize in Palestine and elsewhere by all means, but the words nation and state for the Jewish people should never be heard unless and until it can be such a nation and such a state as shall harmonize with the ideals of their faith and be worthy of their remarkable origin."

A ROMAN CATHOLIC ON PRIMITIVE CHRISTIANITY.

Mr. W. S. Lilly asks the question, "What Was Primitive Christianity?" and devotes twenty pages to answering this question. Briefly summarized, his answer amounts to this, that primitive Christianity before Paul consisted of conventicle *illuminati* who were leading a community living at Jerusalem, and who but for Paul would have gone out like the Essenes and left

no trace behind. After Paul it experienced a great change, but still everything was spontaneous, unconstrained, and self-devoted, having much more in common with a Methodist class-meeting than with the modern Church. He admits as frankly as any Protestant controversialist could desire the fact that both in polity and in doctrine primitive Christianity differs entirely from the organized Christianity now known to the world. He traces the resemblance between it and the Roman Church chiefly in the fact that it was distinguished by the swift development of dogma and the more gradual evolution of polity.

ONE RESULT OF THE SIBERIAN RAILWAY.

Mr. C. A. Moreing, describing a recent business tour in China, contributes one of the best and most practical papers written on this subject. Mr. Moreing's view is distinctly anti-Russian. He declares that both France and Russia are irretrievably committed to the principle of a disguised protectorate, and are opposed to the integrity of China and to equality of opportunity. We cannot attempt to summarize all his observations, but must refer to what he considers as one of the consequences of the Siberian Railway:

"I cannot refrain from pointing out here that a great change in the flow of trade must certainly result from the approaching completion of the Siberian Railway. But as it will bring Tien-tsin as near to us as Bombay now is and Shanghai as near as Calcutta, it must materially increase the British stake in China and Japan."

He concludes his article by protesting in the strongest manner against allowing the Chinese or the Russians to cancel the contract for the construction of the railroad to Newchwang.

EMIGRANT EDUCATION.

Mr. G. J. Holyoake writes sensibly and well as to the need of teaching those who are to emigrate what kind of a country it is to which they are going and where they will find the best market for their labor. Mr. Holyoake is a strong advocate of emigration. He says:

"If workmen have just cause of dissatisfaction with employers, and reasonable, respectful, and patient representation thereof is disregarded, they need not petition, nor supplicate, nor remonstrate, nor utter a resentful word, but arrange to go away. All the redress lies there. Good ships wait in the docks, good diet is secured by merciful care of the state, the rates are low, the passage out is through the royal splendor of the ocean and its uncontaminated air. Beyond lie lands waiting to be owned."

A REVIVAL OF VITALISM.

Vitalism, upon which Dr. John Haldane, lecturer on physiology at Oxford, writes, is closely allied to the belief in the existence of a spirit or soul in man as distinct from the mere sum of animal energies. This is Dr. Haldane's own definition of vitalism:

"To all the forms which vitalism at different times assume the doctrine was common that in a living organism a specific influence is at work which so controls all the movements of the body and of the material entering or leaving it that the structure peculiar to the organism is developed and maintained. This assumption completely differentiated what is living from what is not living, and implied that true principles of explanation in biology can be reached only by a study of life itself, and not of inorganic phenomena."

THE CONTEMPORARY REVIEW.

WITH the exception of Dr. Dillon's paper on "The Coming of Carlism," noticed elsewhere, the contents of the September *Contemporary Review* do not call for special remark.

THE YANG-TSE VALLEY AND ITS TRADE.

Mr. Archibald Little, who has lived forty years in China, describes the region that is supposed to be the sphere of British interest. The river is about 3,000 miles long, and 2,000 of these are navigable. Another thousand miles of its principal affluents are also navigable, so that we have a waterway of 3,000 miles in length flowing through the most populous regions on the earth's surface. Great Britain and her colonies do about two-thirds of the £10,000,000 imports and exports in this region, but Mr. Little says that their proportion is steadily waning owing to the competition of Germany and the United States:

"It is no exaggeration to say that, given a stable and progressive government, affording encouragement to capitalists with security for their investments—resulting in improved means of communication and a corresponding development of its natural resources—the Yang-tse Valley will increase its trade by leaps and bounds, and the £30,000,000 of to-day will be £300,000,000 to-morrow."

CHRISTIAN LEGENDS OF THE HEBRIDES.

Miss A. Goodrich Freer contributes a charming article under this head. Miss Freer spent a good deal of time in the outer Hebrides, and has taken down from the lips of the natives a mass of folk-lore, out of which she selects a number of curious legends, in which those bearing upon the life of Jesus and his mother Mary have been localized—naturalized, so to speak, in Hebridean surroundings. Miss Freer says:

"I have selected a few stories bearing on the life, especially the childhood, of our Lord, not, as might at first appear, to illustrate the ignorance, but rather the reverence, the natural piety of the islanders, who, though left for generations without books, without teachers, have so taken the pictures of the holy life into their hearts and lives that while the outline remains in its original purity, the painting has been touched with local color, and the eastern setting of two thousand years ago has been translated into terms of the daily life of the simple dwellers of the outer Hebrides."

These stories were transmitted orally for generations, corrected neither by teachers nor by book, but they seem to have preserved with great success the essential spirit of the gospels.

PHILOSOPHY AND THE NEWER SOCIOLOGY.

Professor Caldwell writes a weighty article under this title. We shall not attempt to summarize it. It is sufficient to quote the professor's conclusion:

"And just as surely as out of the tentative cosmology and practical philosophy of the Greeks there came in time the rounded idealism of Plato and Aristotle, so out of the various efforts that are to-day being made to systematize the social activities of man in the light of the elemental instincts of his nature as man, as the heir of the ages and æons of the universe, will there come a new idealism and a realm of moral truth that will on the one hand overturn the naturalism and the sensualism of the hour, and on the other give new life to speculative philosophy itself. Nor would the gain that phi-

losophy might reap from sociology be greater than the gain that sociology might reap from philosophy."

A SALVATIONIST'S CRITICISM OF THE SALVATION ARMY.

Mr. John Hollins, an unpaid private in the ranks of the Salvation Army, ventures to express an opinion that the privates in the ranks of the army should have more voice than they have at present in the counsels of the army. If they had, he thinks, they would direct their attention to the need for more thoroughness and the adoption of a wise method of probation in the case of new converts. He also thinks that they would abate the severe over-pressure which causes officers to break down; but the most sweeping reform which he thinks they might adopt relates to the financial administration. He says:

"A 'minimum wage' ought to be guaranteed to every officer; but perhaps the true way out of the difficulty would be to amalgamate small corps that are reasonably contiguous; to work others by means of one officer to a corps instead of two, having some central quarters where several officers could reside together; to greatly extend the circle system, by means of which several small societies are worked by a pair of officers traveling from place to place; and finally to use the most capable of the local members in a much greater measure than is at present the case for itinerant work."

THE PROSPECTS OF CONSTITUTIONALISM IN JAPAN.

A Japanese, Mr. Tokiwo Yokoi, writing upon "New Japan and Her Constitutional Outlook," expresses a belief that constitutionalism is destined to triumph at an early date in his country:

"We must remember that the Japanese Diet is but eight years old, and no political party is more than twenty years old. Yet in Japan things move with astonishing rapidity. And the change from a transcendental cabinet to one in which the ministers are avowedly or tacitly responsible to the majority in the Diet will take place sooner than many think. At any rate, it does not seem to be wide of the mark to suppose that before another generation passes away Japan will feel as easy and natural under constitutional government as France or Germany does to-day."

THE FORTNIGHTLY REVIEW.

IN the *Fortnightly Review* for September Mr. Wentworth Moore gives us three more chapters of his political serial, "The Individualist," the maliciousness of which is not quite so apparent as in the first installment. The articles relating to Bismarck, Carlism, and boys' clubs are noticed elsewhere.

WHAT SHOULD BE DONE IN THE SOUDAN?

Maj. Arthur Griffiths writes enthusiastically concerning General Kitchener's advance on Khartoum. Speaking of the future after Khartoum is taken, Major Griffiths says:

"By far the safest course is to fortify and strengthen our own position. It will be necessary, in the first place, to keep British troops in the Soudan, a strong backing of British bayonets as an outward and visible proof of the still stronger empire behind. A next indispensable step will be the expansion of the present nucleus serving the Khedive under British officers into a substantial local army. The adhesion of the black soldier is soon gained and is generally above proof. After the Atbara battle numbers of black prisoners

took service with us at once. An effective battalion was formed of them, seven hundred strong; and now, well drilled and disciplined, these men are taking part against their former masters in the present advance."

Major Griffiths admits that the occupation of Khar-toum is not likely to be a remunerative enterprise, but indirectly it may tend to relieve the pressure at the Egyptian treasury:

"Egyptian finance may well be spared the grievous burden of a large standing army. For the lower province and all parts of the upper that have been brought under firm government a strong body of police and *gendarmerie* will surely suffice."

ENGLAND INSIDE THE MONROE DOCTRINE.

Theodore Andrea Cook, writing on "The Original Intention of the Monroe Doctrine," quotes a hitherto unpublished letter from President Monroe to Jefferson, together with other letters from the correspondence between Monroe and Madison, which go to show that the Monroe doctrine originally in the opinion of its framers involved an Anglo-American alliance:

"From the letters just quoted, and especially from No. VII., it must follow that the Monroe doctrine was clearly meant by its writer, with the concurrence of Madison and Jefferson, to lay down a combined policy which England and the United States were to follow on the continent of America as against all other powers, a policy which might just as well have been given out by England, but was announced from Washington to avoid any appearance of dictation by the mother country. For the Monroe doctrine is by no means incompatible with an expansion as great as that which has attended the nation by whose suggestion it was originally framed. The war with Spain may be the beginning of that expansion, and the beginning also of a deeper sympathy between the two English-speaking races, which will not be limited either to the American continent of a Monroe or to the British empire of a Canning. The progress and the peace of seventy-five years have been added to them both."

THE GENIUS OF M. DE HEREDIA.

Mr. J. C. Bailey writes a very enthusiastic article upon this subject. Judging from Mr. Bailey's essay, M. de Heredia is one of the greatest poets of all time. His work reminds the reader of Greek sculpture. It is characterized by supreme simplicity and flawless workmanship. Mr. Bailey speaks of M. de Heredia's work as a triumph of poetic inspiration, and he has no hesitation in declaring that words have hardly ever been used with such tremendous effect as in his sonnet upon Egypt:

"Life, as he sees it, is neither a school of morals nor a hot-house of sentiment; what he sees in it is the most splendid of pageants. He has achieved with signal success in poetry what has been so often attempted in vain, and more than in vain, in painting, a series of historical cartoons."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. Albert D. Vandam gossips as usual from a very full *répertoire* concerning "The Spy Mania and the Revanche Idea." He says:

"For years not a single foreign spy has been caught in France, while on the other hand two French ones were caught in Germany, besides an Alsatian woman at Metz. Wilhelm II. commuted the sentences of the

former, if I remember rightly, at Carnot's tragic death. Nevertheless, France continues to suffer from the spy mania."

Charles Bright pleads for an all-British or Anglo-American Pacific cable, and illustrates his paper by a map of the cables of the world.

THE NATIONAL REVIEW.

IN the *National Review* for September the Washington correspondent takes great credit to himself and to his magazine for what has been done in winning over the more hostile section of the American press to approval of cordial relations with Great Britain. The chief feature of the magazine is, however, the translation of the letters of the unfortunate Dreyfus to his wife. There are letters written by Captain Dreyfus to his wife between December, 1894, and March, 1898. There are also two written to his counsel shortly before and just after his degradation. The letters are touching and are entirely consistent with the theory that the unfortunate officer has been the victim of a monstrous miscarriage of justice.

THE MOROCCO QUESTION AND THE WAR.

Mr. W. B. Harris, who has as much right as any man to speak with authority upon the affairs of Morocco, seems to be impressed with an extraordinary hallucination. He imagines that Spain, beaten out of the far East and out of the West Indies, is likely to get a small war on her own account in Morocco. He says:

"Fortunately there is little chance of the peace of the country being disturbed, though the action of Spain must be carefully watched. Possessed as she is of several fortified bases on the north coast, and especially Ceuta and Melilla, it would be no difficult matter for her to create a disturbance in order to gain popularity at home, or to keep on the throne—or rid themselves of—the present dynasty, and to find some occupation for the 200,000 men who will shortly be returning to Spain. The only way in which such a policy on her part can be prevented from taking place is by a firm and trustworthy understanding between the French and British foreign offices to brook no interference in Morocco. If Italy and Germany would join, so much the better, and there is little doubt about their doing so, as one and all are desirous of maintaining the *status quo*. A note from these joint powers to the Spanish Government, to be presented the moment there were any signs of a 'Morocco policy' in Madrid, should nip the movement in the bud. Neither France nor England has any desire for an active policy; rather their sole aims are identical there at present.

"Unfortunately the two powers most interested in the Morocco question have damaged their prestige in the eyes of the native government—France by a policy by which she has gained nothing, but rather lost ground; and England by the illegal acts of the representatives of a trading company, on whose board of directors appears the name of an ex-ambassador."

In his article on "An Anglo-Russian Understanding" Mr. H. W. Wilson says in regard to the possibility of Russia's acquiring coaling-stations on the ocean route between Odessa and Port Arthur:

"We may expect to see Russia in the near future acquire coaling-stations on the line of the far East. On the Arabian coast she may get what she wants from Turkey, or she might obtain from France a lease of a

port on the Tajura Gulf. The Abyssinian coast-line is in the hands of Italy. A second station might be obtained on the Sumatra coast, where Russians have been very busy surveying of late. Two years ago there was much discussion in the Russian press as to the purchase of one of the small islands on this coast from the Dutch or from the Sultan of Achin. These two coaling-stations would enable the new Russian ships to voyage to the East without using British ports. The coal endurance of Russia's latest battleships and cruisers is enormous."

A STUDY IN SCHOOL-CHILDREN.

Miss Catherine Dodd, of Owens College, Manchester, describes an experiment which she made at the beginning of the year in order to test the conceptions which children attach to the words which they are in the habit of using. She says:

"Last March I put the following question to 105 primary-school children between the ages of ten and fourteen: 'What is a policeman, a postman, a soldier, a king, a professor, a member of Parliament, a negro, a school board?'"

She found, as might be expected, that children, both from town and country, were very well aware of the functions of the first three, that they had a tolerably good idea of a king, but when they came to describe a professor, a member of Parliament, a school board, they were hopelessly at sea. There seems to be close association in the childish mind between a professor and a conjuror. As for a member of Parliament, their leading idea is that he makes laws for his country and that he has something to do with the Queen. Miss Dodd's practical conclusion is:

"We want in our primary school a living scheme of instruction which will exercise the thinking powers of the child's mind. The chief items in such a scheme should be language, history, and object-lessons."

AMERICA'S EXPORT TRADE.

Mr. A. Maurice Low, in his monthly letter on American affairs, draws special attention to the immense strides which America has taken of late years in foreign trade. The exports of American manufactures are for the first time in excess of the imports of manufactured articles. In 1888 John Bull bought from Uncle Sam goods valued at £72,000,000. Last year he spent £108,000,000 in the American market. This did not include British dependencies:

"In 1888 the value of iron and steel manufactures exported from the United States amounted to, in round numbers, £3,500,000; while the imports were valued at nearly £10,000,000, Great Britain having the bulk of the trade. This year the figures were reversed, the exports aggregating £14,000,000 and the imports £2,500,000."

MR. HOOLEY AND HIS METHODS.

In an article entitled "Company Promoting à la Mode," Mr. W. R. Lawson descants upon the methods by which Mr. Hooley contrived to achieve such notoriety, the sources of which are now being so ruthlessly examined in the Bankruptcy Court. Mr. Lawson says it is the provincials who are the chief victims of the company promoter:

"London contributes a very small percentage of the subscriptions to new companies, not a tithe, in fact, of what comes from the provinces. Its share in the Dunlop and Bovril reorganizations was particularly small, and its losses through them are less than those of some third-

class provincial towns. When a Hooley comes along, with his retinue of directors in coronets and city editors in gold chains, he captures them wholesale. Not because they are so innocent and unsophisticated, but because there is money-making in the air, and the sight is too fascinating for them."

THE SCIENTIFIC WORK OF LORD RAYLEIGH.

Prof. Oliver Lodge devotes a long and interesting article to an attempt to explain to the general reader why the scientific world holds Lord Rayleigh in such high esteem. The general public knows Lord Rayleigh is the man who discovered argon, one of those substances which appear to have been about us all our lives, but which science with all its instruments has hitherto failed to identify. Professor Lodge says that argon was "not only a new element, but in all probability, as it turns out, one of an unsuspected series of elements; and not a rare or inaccessible one, either, but one of which every large room contains about a hundred-weight, an element of which forty tons rest on every acre of the earth's surface."

After describing in some detail Lord Rayleigh's other achievements, Professor Lodge says:

"It is this faculty for grasping and marshaling every relevant fact, by whomsoever discovered, seeing all their bearings and inter-relations, and supplementing them by direct and beautifully designed experiments wherever they are deficient, this extraordinary lucidity of thought in difficult and otherwise controversial questions which, more than all his other achievements, has gained for Lord Rayleigh the admiration and gratitude of physicists."

THE UNITED SERVICE MAGAZINE.

THE *United Service Magazine* for September has several papers of general interest. The most elaborate essay, and that which will most probably be regarded as most useful and practical from the professional point of view, is Surgeon Captain Will's article on "The Recruit and His Physical Training," which contains some interesting figures as to the extent to which the physical development of the recruit can be improved by good feeding and gymnastics.

In the papers on "Our Naval Heroes" the third of the series is devoted to Admiral Viscount Bridport, an old salt who put in sixty-four years of actual service before he struck his flag in 1880. Mr. W. G. F. Hunt, R.N., puts in a good word for the privateer, and enforces his point by telling stories as to the fashion in which British privateers in the old days assisted in holding the seas for the king. Between 1743 and 1800 no fewer than 1,510 ships, mounting 16,000 guns and manned by 118,000 men, were captured by British ships on the high seas; but Mr. Hunt, although he says that a large proportion of these captures were made by privateers, omits to say how large. He concludes his article by a congratulatory chuckle over the fact that for a period of fifty-eight years England's enemies lost every week on an average, year in and year out, 1 ship, 12 guns, and 80 fighting men. Of the 1,510 ships, 43 were Dutch, 190 Spanish, and all the rest French.

The article the readers outside the services will turn to with most interest is Mr. C. S. Clark's gossip paper on "Some American Admirals and a Few Other Sailors." The paper bristles with anecdotes concerning the men whose names have been in every mouth as the

commanders of the American fleets during the recent war. In discussing the various exploits performed by subordinate officers during the campaign, Mr. Clark gives the palm to an officer of the name of Gillis, who captured a stray torpedo and rendered it harmless :

"The torpedo had been fired from the destroyer *Penton*, and, with force almost expended, was coming slowly but surely toward the anchored torpedo-boat *Porter*. Gillis sprang overboard, swam to the torpedo, turned the nose away from the *Porter*, and screwed up the firing-pin tightly so that it would not operate. Then, treading water, he saluted Lieutenant Fremont and reported : 'Sir, I have to report I have captured a torpedo.' 'Bring it aboard, sir,' replied Fremont; and Gillis actually did so, swimming with it to the ship and fastening tackles to it."

Mr. E. H. Parker's paper concerning "The Arsenals of China" is full of details as to the money expended on various arsenals. There is a paper on musketry and tactics and another suggesting improvement in canteen management.

BLACKWOOD'S MAGAZINE.

THE tone of most of the articles relating to the Spanish-American War which have appeared in *Blackwood's* since the beginning of hostilities has been anti-American. The September number forms no exception to the rule. Hannah Lynch, from whose paper on "The Spaniard at Home" we have quoted in our department of "Leading Articles," affects to believe that the war was "brutally forced" on Spain. She sneers at "American humanity," declaring that the Americans would imitate Spanish cruelties if the circumstances were favorable, but in a foot-note she admits the injustice of her wholesale accusations under compulsion of "the tale of America's magnanimity and generosity,

so recently recorded," referring, presumably, to our treatment of the Spanish prisoners at Santiago. "As an enemy America has won her spurs in the realm of chivalry." Before this admission was made she had said that "the Indian brave and the nigger know something of American humanity," and she predicted that the blacks of Cuba would fare no better should they fall into our hard hands.

Under the caption, "The End of an Old Song: Confessions of a Cuban Governor," General Polavieja's recently published account of his administration in Cuba is reviewed. The reviewer seems convinced that Spain has made a disastrous failure of her attempt to govern Cuba, but he finds no reason for supposing that the United States understands what her mission in Cuba is to be, "or realizes what is meant by the honorable obligation she has assumed."

"The Looker-On," in his comments of the situation, says :

"Though the United States have all the makings of a great naval and military nation, and may be expected to have mighty fleets and a large, well-disciplined army a few years hence, America is not a considerable fighting power yet. Of course I mean in comparison with the greater European powers; which, if they must be defied, may yet be defied a little too soon.

"It should be remembered that the story of the war has been told altogether from the one side, and that almost all report of its causes, conduct, and consequences has been colored by one set of sympathies. The best, no doubt, but liable to unfair excess. The Spaniards might complain, for example, that after being exhorted by every print in England for weeks to abandon a conflict which only an absurdly obstinate pride would carry on, they had no sooner done so than they were pitied on one side and jeered at from another for their pusillanimous contentment in defeat."

THE CONTINENTAL REVIEWS.

REVUE DES DEUX MONDES.

WE have noticed elsewhere the article on American finance by M. Lévy in the first August number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*.

THE EUROPEAN CONCERT.

Comte Benedetti's article on the European concert has been widely noticed in the foreign press. It is not a little curious that it should have appeared so soon after the death of Bismarck. M. Benedetti is evidently alarmed at the extent to which Germany has acquired a footing in Turkey, having drawn into her net practically all the Turkish railroads. He retraces the miserable story of the Armenian massacres and the Cretan imbroglio, and draws from all this the conclusion that the European concert is a fiction, a conception which is sterile and possibly dangerous. He does not, however, recommend his government to go out of it, for it is in any case a sort of observatory from which one sees better what is going on in Europe than one would from outside.

LEGAL TIME.

M. Dastre continues his series of papers on official time. He shows that the exact local time of any place is only suitable to the needs of observatories and of

scientific men. For the practical purposes of life it is impossible, and the best proof of this is that it has been successively abandoned by every country which had adopted it. Of course, if human beings were content to remain always in the same place and never moved about at all, there would be no inconvenience in every place having its own natural time; but modern requirements demand the imposition of an artificial time, more or less differing from the true time, according to the sun, in each place. It is extraordinary, indeed, that France had to wait until 1891 before she had the convenience of one national time—namely, the time of Paris—all over the country. The Orient express from Paris to Constantinople affords a curious example of different state times. Before the reform of the clocks it passed through eight different times in its course through France, Alsace, Germany, Austria, Hungary, Servia, Bulgaria, and Turkey. M. Dastre gives the credit for this reform to Mr. Sandford Fleming, the famous engineer of the Canadian Pacific Railway. Mr. Fleming found that on that great line there were no fewer than seventy-five different times in use, and so he brought about the General Railway Time Convention. At the Geographical Congress at Vienna in 1881 he brought forward his proposal for simplifying the time

of the whole world. His system consists of dividing the globe into twenty-four sections and assigning to each of them the mean time of its meridian.

THE HARVEST OF THE SEA.

The principles of scientific agriculture, which have already been applied with so much success in various countries, have led those interested in the fishing industry to apply them to the cultivation of the sea, or rather of the fishes in the sea, as M. de Varigny reminds us in the second August number. It is curious that so recently as 1869 a French official did not hesitate to declare that pisciculture was of no value. That, however, has not been the experience of those who have followed him. It has been found, not to go too much into detail, that by cultivating the eggs of various fishes and protecting them from the creatures that feed upon them in a natural state it is possible to, so to speak, plant fishes in places where they have not previously been found, and so help to render cheaper and more abundant a particularly healthy article of diet.

THE PARISIAN WINE-SHOP IN POLITICS.

M. Talmeyr has an amusing paper on the influence of the wine-shop on French politics. The keeper of the wine-shop exercises upon the Parisian man in the street apparently much the same influence that the British publican exercises upon his *clientèle* of middle and lower class voters. Indeed, the French dispenser of drinks probably has more influence, because there is not in France the same outlet for political excitement in the shape of public meetings as there is in England; and therefore the informal gatherings at the wine shops form, for the majority of Parisian voters, their only school of political thought.

NOUVELLE REVUE.

WE have noticed elsewhere the anonymous article in the second August number on the "Two Policies of Russia." There is nothing else in Madame Adam's review of first-class importance, but there is a good deal that is of considerable interest.

A FRENCH FEMINISTE.

The Comtesse de Magallon contributes a study of Mlle. Victoire Daubié, which forms not the least interesting portion of the history of the woman movement in France. In 1859 the Academy of Lyons opened a sort of competition for the best way of (1) raising the wages of women to the level of those of men when their work is equivalent, and (2) opening to women new careers and procuring for them work to replace that which they have lost by the competition of men and by various changes in customs and usages. The prize of this somewhat formidable competition was won by Mademoiselle Daubié. She was born in 1824, of an old Lorraine family. Her health was delicate in childhood and she was excused regular lessons, but her thirst for knowledge was so great that she escaped the watchfulness of her relations and insisted on working with such ardor that she had, at an early age, acquired all the intellectual equipment of a grown-up woman. She then went on to learn Latin with one of her brothers, who was a *curé*, and she took advantage of a visit to Baden to learn German. In fact, all her life she was learning, and the evening before her death, in 1874, was spent in preparing a thesis for her doctorate.

Mademoiselle Daubié had a sort of apostolic fervor

and devotion in the cause of her sex. She gave up the idea of marriage in order to be more free, and she appears to have possessed an indefinable personal magnetism which enabled her to enroll a little army of faithful followers under her banner. The age, the beginning of the second empire, was not favorable for any movement having for its object the elevation of woman, whose function in the world Napoleon had stated with his customary brutality. The mass of women in France worked for miserable pay and in a kind of dumb misery, which touched Mademoiselle Daubié to the heart. She demanded for the working or business woman, the employee or the teacher, those ordinary civil rights of which it seems extraordinary that they should ever have been deprived. She devoted herself to the abolition of the system of "letters of obedience" which were granted to nuns, and conferred upon them the right of teaching, quite regardless of their degree of competence. But it was not until after the war of 1870 that these letters of obedience were abolished, and it was arranged that no woman should devote herself to teaching unless she could obtain a certificate. But Mademoiselle Daubié was far from intending an anti-religious campaign, and she would have been the first to protest against the secular tone which the enemies of the Church gave to her movement.

Though she seems to have been in favor of the extension of the franchise to women, she does not appear to have possessed a very democratic idea of popular suffrage as a political principle. Indeed, she considered that only those persons should be granted the suffrage who are worthy of it on the ground of capacity and morality! In the report which she presented to the Academy of Lyons she said: "Woman will become in society whatever she will be capable and worthy of being." The working classes, in her view, suffered from two great drawbacks, ignorance and centralization. Mademoiselle Daubié proposed to remedy the first by the spread of education and the second by the reconstitution of the family, which had been somewhat broken up by the conditions of modern industry.

THE MARQUIS VISCONTI-VENOSTA.

In the first August number M. Montecorvoli has a study of Rudini's foreign minister, the Marquis Visconti-Venosta, who is regarded as one of the few really great statesmen of modern Italy. It will be remembered that he was one of the arbitrators between England and America in the Bering Sea fisheries question, and it was a little after that that he became foreign minister. His achievements in that office perhaps stand out by contrast with the general inefficiency of Italian ministers, but it is pretty clear that he is a man of considerable ability and—what is, perhaps, of more importance in Italy—of honesty and loyalty. As an orator he is distinguished for his restraint and diplomatic reserve, as well as for the literary form of his speeches, while he seems to possess by instinct the art of satisfying a questioner and at the same time telling him nothing real.

THE BEND OF THE NIGER.

M. Loliée has an article, based on the papers of Captain Voulet, on the attractions of Mossi, one of the places which the Anglo-French agreement assigns to France. He says that Mossi is a most important acquisition. The inhabitants of this country, having long enjoyed a comparative immunity from attack,

have come to believe their country inviolable and their own race superior to that of their neighbors. The country, we learn, is rich and thickly populated. The native women are in an extremely down-trodden condition, and apparently their only pleasure in life is to obtain copper rings with which to encircle their arms and ankles. They are repulsively ugly, and although they have to a certain extent abandoned the custom of tattooing, they ornament their faces with a slight incision, straight or diagonal, down the nose and across the cheeks, or else they decorate their faces with designs in blue.

REVUE DE PARIS.

THERE is unusually little of general interest in the *Revue de Paris* for August. An anonymous Lieutenant X. treats the Spanish-American War, so far as it concerns the Philippines, in the form of a diary. Though not deficient in picturesque incidents and illustrated by some fairly good maps and pictures of the sunken Spanish fleet, the article does not call for detailed examination.

M. Gabriel Tarde, in concluding his article on the growth of public opinion, observes that to discover or to invent a new and great object of hatred for the use of the public is still one of the most sure methods of becoming a king in journalism. This is undoubtedly true in France. M. Tarde considers that the danger of the new democracy is the increasing difficulty of escaping from the obsession of a fascinating agitation. He thinks that the intellectual and artistic heights of humanity can only be preserved from the destructive hands of the democracy, who are unable to estimate them at their true worth, by united resistance. It is exceedingly difficult to tell what this means, but if by it M. Tarde wishes to convey that all the clever people in the world should unite to resist the encroachments of democracy, he is certainly a very sanguine man.

THE ITALIAN REVIEWS.

THE Italian reviews offer singularly few points of interest this month. Professor Vidari writes lengthily and gloomily concerning the present condition of Italy in the *Nuova Antologia*. The *Rassegna Nazionale* (August 1) devotes a few pages to proving—that surely does not stand in need of demonstration—that it is quite impossible for a belief in the necessity of the temporal power ever to be elevated into a dogma of the Church binding upon the faithful. The *Riforma Sociale* contains a lucid exposition from the pen of Signor Conigliani of Gladstone's financial policy. The author dwells specially on his attitude toward the income tax, and does full justice to his keenness of vision and amazing resourcefulness. Speaking of his general characteristics, the author asserts that his greatest

merit lay in this, that whereas the teachings of accomplished facts were never wasted upon him, yet the brutality of facts never deprived him of his vision of the ideal. In the *Civiltà Cattolica* (August 20) appears a study of the gunpowder plot in accordance with the new views concerning that historic event recently published by Father Gerard, S.J.

THE SPANISH MAGAZINES.

THERE are several articles in the Spanish magazines dealing in various ways with America and with Cuba, but they are generally reminiscent. In the *Revista Contemporanea* Señor de Toca writes on the diplomacy and colonial policy of Spain in respect of her American empire in the seventeenth century. A golden opportunity was lost, at the time of that crisis, for the foundation of "Greater Spain." Such an empire, he says, is more easy of realization than Greater Britain; "but the first consideration is to win the hearts of the people of the Hispano-American races."

The most interesting article in this magazine is not signed. The writer tells us how the cause of Spain in Cuba should be set forth and dealt with. Spain has made a mistake in treating—and in permitting the powers to so regard it—the Cuban insurrection as a mere dispute between a power and its colony, as a common incident of interior politics; whereas Cuba is an international question of the highest importance both to the powers of Europe and to all the republics of the American continent. Spain should never have given the United States the opportunity of assuming their present (pretended) rôle of deliverer; she should have approached the European powers and arranged to act in concert with them and the American republics—the great republic not even having a preferential voice in the deliberations.

By its position Cuba is undoubtedly of international importance; the balance of power will be shaken by its falling into the possession of a greedy and powerful country. Even England, the friend of the United States, must see that. The European powers, if approached diplomatically, would have acted—to save the balance of power—an Spain would have acquiesced gracefully and generously in their decision, provided that civilization and Christianity should not suffer. For they were introduced by Spain, and their maintenance is a point of honor with her. It would have cost Spain a pang to give up the island had the powers decided to imitate what was done in the case of Switzerland; but she would have agreed for the sake of others.

In *España Moderna* Emilio Castelar foresees great danger to the Spanish-American republics from the possession by the United States of so large an army and navy, and predicts that the United States will lose their democratic character and become an empire.





THE PASSING OF THE HERO.—From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin).

THE NEW BOOKS.

BISMARCK BEHIND THE SCENES, AS SHOWN IN DR. MORITZ BUSCH'S "SECRET PAGES."*

EVEN great diplomats, skilled in the artful use of silence and masters of self-control, must give vent in words to their real feelings and opinions now and then, in the presence of some trusted friend or associate or in the guarded privacy of the family circle. The great, benignant, and patient George Washington himself was not always on his perfect behavior, and relieved himself in private not infrequently by letting off steam with a wild roar through the safety-valve. What a shocking thing it would be to have a large book issued next week to be called "Some Secret Pages of the History of Gladstone," and to be composed of the most faithful jottings-down at the moment by some private secretary or inner member of his domestic or political household of every unguarded expression relative to eminent personages of his own or other countries. It is well known, for instance, that there were times when Gladstone's relations with Queen Victoria were exceedingly difficult, and when the august widow of Windsor treated the Liberal prime minister in the most provoking and objectionable manner. Is it to be supposed that throughout those trying years Mr. Gladstone always in private, as in public, spoke of the Queen in

terms of humble devotion or glowing praise? Anybody may think so who so prefers, since we have no evidence to the contrary. What if this book of secret Gladstone memoirs were to reproduce everything that the great statesman ever said in his life about Disraeli or Salisbury? The suggestion is enough. Such a book would be immensely interesting, and it would throw some side lights certainly upon the course of British political history. We should read it with curiosity, and not without some instruction, if it were available. But we may be permitted to be very thankful that no Boswell or Moritz Busch was ever kept in William Ewart Gladstone's pay. Being human, the English statesman doubtless expressed his opinions now and then with warmth and freedom; but no man's private expressions have any proper concern for the public until their private character has been lost by publication.

Dr. Moritz Busch entered the employ of Bismarck just upon the eve of the breaking out of the Franco-Prussian War. Busch had been something of a traveler and had written several books. He was also a clever journalist. He was recommended to Bismarck as a man who knew how to "work the newspapers," as an American politician would say. It was for this sole purpose that Busch was employed by Bismarck pretty constantly through a period of some twenty years. Bismarck had formed the mental habit of absolutely identifying himself and his own masterful plans and policies with

* Bismarck: Some Secret Pages of His History. Being a diary kept by Dr. Moritz Busch during twenty-five years' official and private intercourse with the great chancellor. With portraits. 2 vols., 8vo, pp. 525-585. New York: The Macmillan Company. \$10.

the true welfare and progress of the German nation. He would appear never to have had the slightest misgiving as to the validity of this theory of himself. He held it to be a fundamental axiom in German politics that it was essential for the German welfare that Bismarck's will should be done in Germany, and as far beyond the limits of Germany as possible. Any means to the fulfillment of his ends seemed to him to be justifiable. Any hesitation on the part of any man, whether the Emperor or a lesser personage, about the adoption of Bismarck's policies and the approval of his methods, seemed to Bismarck the sign of weakness, stupidity, or something worse. Thus opposition to Bismarck was the unpardonable sin and good ground for relentless hatred. It is necessary to have this Bismarckian theory of Bismarck clearly in mind in order to get the bearing of Dr. Busch's two elaborate volumes. The value of Dr. Busch to Prince Bismarck, apart from Busch's wonderful facility and knack in working the newspapers, consisted in Busch's complete acceptance of the above-mentioned theory. Busch went so far as to call Bismarck his Messiah and to indulge in something approaching a blasphemous idolatry. This attachment on the part of Busch was no passing whim, but the absorbing passion of a lifetime. Busch liked whatever Bismarck liked; but especially and above all did Busch violently loathe whatever was hateful to Bismarck.

Prince Bismarck will stand as one of the gigantic personalities of human history. His intellectual life was not so rich and many-sided as that of Mr. Gladstone, but he was certainly a man of varied genius and of many phases. A good deal of the variety of Bismarck's great mind and nature is of necessity reflected in the jottings that Moritz Busch was in the habit of making from day to day, after having heard Bismarck's table-talk, or after a frank and confidential political discussion growing out of Busch's relationship to the chancellor as press secretary. But we must remember



OUR CROWN! (FRANCE'S FUNERAL OFFERING.)
From *Le Rire* (Paris).

that Busch is not a many-sided genius, and that Bismarck was never at any pains to reveal himself entirely to the gentleman whom he hired to influence the German and foreign newspapers on behalf of Bismarck's political policies. Busch wrote one book about Bismarck in the late 70s and another in the early 80s. These were pretty carefully edited, Bismarck himself having secretly revised the proofs. It is convenient to find much of the material used in those books reproduced in the two large volumes now given to the public, together, of course, with a large amount of interpolated material which could not be used while Bismarck was alive and a mass of later data.

It is not our purpose at all in this notice to thread together fragmentary quotations from this amazing collection of notes upon Bismarck's private conversations. It must suffice to indicate the nature of the work. Dr. Busch makes it reasonably clear that Bismarck had given him full permission to print anything that he chose after his death. It is not worth while to raise any question about the good taste of the performance, since there is not the slightest attempt to maintain even a show of respecting anybody's feelings. Indeed, Dr. Busch's chief desire would seem to be to lunge as fiercely as possible at anybody who had ever dared to cross the path of his adored chief. It must be said, on the other hand, in justice to Dr. Busch, that there is no attempt to place Bismarck in a false light, nor to minimize, nor yet to apologize for anything whatsoever.

The Bismarck revealed to us in these memoirs is the man who purposely set the clever diplomatic trap into which the French stumbled in 1870, in order to bring on



TO THE RUBBISH-HEAP!—From *Le Grelot* (Paris).

a war for which he knew that Germany was prepared while France was not. While he was putting the French in a false position and forcing them into a war in which they should appear before the world as the unjustifiable aggressors, he was engaged at home in the noble game of endeavoring to goad his reluctant King into something like a resolute mood and a proper feeling of enthusiasm for a war which that rather wooden and unimaginative gentleman had no appetite for. As respects this great period of war-making and empire-building,



GERMANY FORGIVES—FRANCE, NEVER!
From the *Amsterdammer* (Holland).

Bismarck, as reported by Busch, is a good deal disturbed lest the King whom he, Bismarck, had made Emperor of united Germany should cheat history and obtain a little personal credit for some of the achievements in arms or in statesmanship of the years 1870-71. This work of Dr. Busch's is particularly meant to show that Bismarck alone conceived everything, planned everything, and achieved everything; and that his royal master was a sort of lay figure—an annoying incumbrance, now and then—with a stupid way of retarding necessary proceedings, and otherwise without much claim upon the good-will or gratitude of German posterity, except in so far as he showed one great virtue—namely, that of expressing now and then his humble appreciation of the unparalleled services of Bismarck.

As for "Unser Fritz," Germany was quite mistaken in supposing that he had done anything very valiant or noteworthy in the war; and Bismarck has great pleasure in being able to show by the narration of various incidents that the Crown Prince was rather a flabby, helpless sort of person, who never really did anything to justify his existence. The only redeeming circumstance about the brief reign of the Emperor Frederick was his retention of Bismarck as chancellor. Even this apparently sensible and suitable conduct on the part of Frederick was rendered of small avail for saving his position in history, by reason of the publication after his death of his diary. That diary, as everybody will remember, was devoted in the main to a setting forth of the trials and tribulations that the Emperor and Empress Frederick suffered at the hands of a certain Prince Otto von Bismarck. Plenty of space in these Busch revelations is accorded to Bismarck's contemptuous opinion of the diary and of the Emperor Frederick

himself. But if Prince Bismarck despised the Emperor Frederick, the feeling of antipathy was wild when contrasted with his deadly hatred of the Empress, Queen Victoria's eldest daughter, whom he always considered to be his worst enemy. Royal women always bothered him a good deal, the old Queen and Empress Augusta having been a thorn in his side for a great many years.

The story of the chancellor's dismissal by the present Emperor and of his relations to the younger William is not so full of new facts and material as the political gossips of Europe might have desired. It is, however, sufficiently frank and straightforward. Bismarck in the earlier days had regarded the young William as his own disciple. It was only after William chose to dispense with the services of Bismarck that the old chancellor discovered how hot-headed and rattle-brained and altogether dangerous a young man had come to the imperial throne.

Dr. Busch's volumes are a perfect encyclopedia of anecdote and comment upon the two great Bismarckian decades from 1870 to 1890. A great deal of material relating to the earlier periods of Bismarck's career is inserted in the form of letters and papers that the Prince had allowed Busch to copy for any future use he might desire to make. When the worst had been said about the cantankerousness and bitterness of much of the material collected in these volumes, it will remain true that they give evidence, at least, that there was nothing whatever in Bismarck's career that he desired to conceal, and that he was entirely willing that posterity should form its opinion of him in the light of the whole truth.

Most students of German history and of the career of Bismarck will be inclined to say after reading the Busch volumes that, while their fund of information has been enormously increased, they have found no reason to materially modify their estimate of the character of Bismarck, nor their opinion as to his methods of achievements. It has long been well known



AMONG THE IMMORTALS.—From *Der Floh* (Vienna).

that he made constant use of the newspapers, in order to exploit his views and to influence public opinion. Dr. Busch shows us how the whole thing was carried on in detail. Not much, however, that it is necessary to construe as dishonorable is shown in this journalistic activity of the great German statesman.

It is not to be supposed that so masterful and ambitious a chancellor as Bismarck, conscious of having created an empire, should have had a very exalted notion of the abilities of the successive sovereigns whose servant he was supposed to be. The world has never for a moment supposed that the house of Hohenzollern had anything vital to do with the founding of the German empire. In this last half of the nineteenth century nobody outside of Russia takes the institution of royalty very seriously. A great statesman like Bismarck or Gladstone, conscious of bearing the real burden and responsibility, must of necessity find it irksome to go through the empty form of paying deference to the commonplace, stupid persons who sit on thrones, exact homage, and imagine themselves to be made of superior clay. The silliness of it all must at times affect the keen-witted statesman very irresistibly in his sense of the ludicrous, and must also exasperate him dreadfully at other times. Bismarck, being human and conscious of the exercise of real power, could not have done otherwise than express himself rather forcibly about the behavior of royalties when off guard and among friends. The remarkable thing is to find it all in print.

The chancellor's immense force of character and extraordinary endowment of courage is revealed in every



THE REVENGE OF THE DEAD.—From *Figaro* (Paris).

(This cartoon might well be printed on the title-page of Dr. Busch's book.)

chapter of these volumes of Dr. Busch's. Through all his active and turbulent years of political life, in the course of which he brought on three great wars, nothing would have suited his private inclination so much as to retire to his landed estates, there to engage in the peaceful pursuits of agriculture.

There is no need to encourage students of modern history and politics to read these memoirs of Dr. Busch, nor yet to discourage their perusal. In any case they will be eagerly devoured in Germany, France, England,

and America—indeed, in every nook and corner of the civilized world they will be read and discussed with keen interest. No man except the first Napoleon has in modern times laid his hands with such force and significance upon the map of Europe as Bismarck; and all countries have directly or indirectly been affected by his strong policies.

Such unguarded and frank memoirs as these, given to the public at the very moment of a great statesman's death, are altogether a new thing in biographical



THE KAISER FINDS HIMSELF ALONE WITH GERMANIA AT LAST!—From the *Borsszem Yanko'* (Budapest, Hungary).

literature. Bismarck in his later years, after retiring to Friedrichsruhe, attempted to dictate his political reminiscences for publication after his death. His private secretary, Bucher, who died in 1892, had this matter in hand. Whatever exists in the way of Bismarckian autobiographical material is now, probably, in the hands of his son, Count Herbert Bismarck. There is little reason to believe, however, that any systematic or complete manuscript was left by Prince Bismarck, and probably nothing will ever be published which can approach these volumes of Busch in their quality of reflecting literally and faithfully the manner, language, mental habit, and general point of view of the great German statesman.

It is hardly necessary to explain that the cartoons reproduced from foreign papers that appear herewith have no connection with Dr. Busch's revelations. To interpolate them, however, does not seem impertinent, in view of the character of the book under review. They are all of them remarkable and have, of course, appeared since Bismarck's death. ALBERT SHAW.

RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

MILITARY AND NAVAL WORKS.

Military Europe. By Nelson A. Miles. 4to, pp. 122. New York: Doubleday & McClure Company. \$1.50.

In this volume General Miles gives "a narrative of personal observation and personal experience" during a visit made last year to the different countries of Europe for the purpose of studying military conditions generally and the war between Greece and Turkey especially. The publishers have illustrated General Miles' very interesting account with many portraits, pictures of troops and naval views. All of the pictures are remarkably clear and well printed. The frontispiece portrait of General Miles himself is especially noteworthy.

War Memories of an Army Chaplain. By H. Clay Trumbull. 12mo, pp. 421. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. \$2.

Rev. Henry Clay Trumbull, widely known throughout the country for his exceedingly able and valuable work as editor of the *Sunday-School Times*, was a war chaplain of wide experience during the war with the South, and he has written a volume packed full of interesting reminiscences, anecdotes and reflections that bring back to us the war period from a fresh standpoint. Perhaps nobody knows as much about real army life as the regimental chaplain.

The Yankee Navy. By Tom Masson. 8vo, pp. 124. New York: Life Publishing Company. \$1.

This is an entertaining account of our navy's achievements, well written and attractively illustrated. The concluding chapter brings the story up to date, i.e., to the end of the war with Spain, but how the battleship *Oregon* and her doings could fail to receive mention in the record of Cervera's defeat at Santiago passes our comprehension.

With Dewey at Manila. Edited by Thomas J. Vivian. Paper, 12mo, pp. 100. New York: R. F. Fenno & Co. 25 cents.

This is the story of the American victory on the first of May as told in the notes and correspondence of an officer on board Admiral Dewey's flagship, the *Olympia*. The narrative is well written and the information about the contending squadrons apparently authentic. The book is suitably illustrated.

The Navy in the Civil War: The Blockade and the Cruisers. By James Russell Soley. 12mo, pp. 257. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. \$1.

The Navy in the Civil War: The Atlantic Coast. By Daniel Ammen. 12mo, pp. 383. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. \$1.

The Navy in the Civil War: The Gulf and Inland Waters. By A. T. Mahan. 12mo, pp. 267. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. \$1.

Fifteen years ago the house of Scribners dealt with the naval operations of the United States Government during the period of the Civil War in three excellent little volumes, the names and authors of which are listed above. It is well worth while to have these books on the market again in a new edition. At this time, all the literature of the American navy finds eager readers, and these little volumes have standard value.

HISTORY.

The Historical Development of Modern Europe. Part II.—From 1850 to 1897. By Charles M. Andrews. 8vo, pp. 474. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$2.50.

In the second and concluding volume of his work on modern European history Professor Andrews deals with such themes as the rise of the Second Empire in France, the Crimean War, the establishment of Italian unity, the rise

of Prussia under Bismarck, the Eastern question, the founding of the French Republic and the German Empire, the growth of Russia, and the vicissitudes of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. The author has not attempted to write a minute chronicle of events, but rather to single out those phases of French, German, Italian, and English history that have a direct bearing on the historical development of continental Europe as a whole.

Men and Manners of the Eighteenth Century. By Susan Hale. 12mo, pp. 326. Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent. \$1.

Miss Hale has attempted in this volume not so much a study of literature in itself as a study of real life through the medium of literature. Thus the eighteenth century is revealed to us through the novels, diaries, and letters of the time as happily selected by Miss Hale. With such skill have the quotations been made that the book, from beginning to end, is a singularly attractive presentation of English life a century ago.

Twenty Centuries of English History. By James Richard Joy. 12mo, pp. 318. Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent. \$1.

This history is too much condensed to make "easy reading." The outline of the story is given, with references to collateral reading.

TRAVEL.

The Rainbow's End: Alaska. By Alice Palmer Henderson. 12mo, pp. 296. Chicago: Herbert S. Stone & Co. \$1.50.

This is a breezy and entertaining account of a woman's journeyings in Alaska and the Klondike country. The book is packed with information and with good advice to those contemplating a fortune-seeking voyage to that part of the world.

Through China with a Camera. By John Thomson. 8vo, pp. 298. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. \$5.

In this volume nearly one hundred interesting photographs taken in China by Mr. Thomson are reproduced. The author's comments on modern Chinese conditions are timely and important.

POLITICS AND ECONOMICS.

The Control of the Tropics. By Benjamin Kidd. 12mo, pp. 101. New York: The Macmillan Company. 75 cents.

Mr. Kidd's little volume, which can be read in an hour, is worth more than many a pretentious work of ten times its bulk. It ought to be read all over the United States, because it lays down, in the light of historical experience, the true administrative principles upon which the United States should proceed in the practical work of making itself useful in the Philippines and in dealing successfully with the West Indies. Mr. Kidd—who, by the way, is now visiting this country and is engaged upon an important new work—holds that the development of civilization requires an ever increasing economic efficiency in the naturally rich tropical regions, and that such efficiency can only be secured by political and administrative control from the temperate zones. Good instances of what he means are afforded by the work that England is doing in Egypt, and the better phases of English rule in India. We commend the book to all thoughtful minds as highly pertinent to the current discussions of the American policy of expansion.

America's Foreign Policy. By Theodore Salisbury Woolsey. 12mo, pp. 304. New York: The Century Company. \$1.25.

Professor T. S. Woolsey, who holds the chair of international law in the Yale University Law School, has from

time to time contributed to the *Yale Review*, the *Yale Law Journal*, and other periodicals, certain noteworthy essays dealing with particular questions of American diplomacy and foreign relations. These articles are now reprinted in a volume entitled "America's Foreign Policy." In view of the manner in which the book was written, it must be said that the chapters have a unexpectedly consecutive character, forming a volume possessing a good deal of coherence. The principal criticism that suggests itself is the ephemeral character of several of the chapters, which have already been rendered obsolete by the swift movement of events. What Professor Woolsey wrote last May, for instance, about the future of the Philippines could hardly be written to-day, in the light of the actual situation.

The State. By Woodrow Wilson. Revised Edition. 8vo, pp. 691. Boston : D. C. Heath & Co. \$2.

In this new edition of Professor Wilson's well-known text-book on "The State" the author has embodied all recent constitutional and legislative changes in the various governments described. It is interesting to note that this valuable work has been highly appreciated by educators the world over. A few months ago a Japanese edition, published in Japan, was put on the market. It is said that for some years past Cambridge University, England, has used Professor Wilson's book as a standard treatise, and it is used by more than two hundred American colleges.

Socialism and the Social Movement in the 19th Century. By Werner Sombart. Translated by Anson P. Atterbury. With Introduction by John B. Clark. 12mo, pp. 216. New York : G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.25.

This is a valuable *résumé* of the modern socialistic movement by a German university professor. It is a study of socialism as it actually exists, rather than a digest of socialistic speculations. It should be read by all who would inform themselves regarding the European and international movements of these latter days.

Problems of Modern Industry. By Sidney and Beatrice Webb. 8vo, pp. 294. New York : Longmans, Green & Co. \$2.50.

In this volume the authors of "Industrial Democracy" and other works on related subjects discuss various questions connected with the London sweating system and industrial conditions in general. Several of the chapters had already appeared in the form of magazine articles.

Natural Taxation. By Thomas G. Shearman. 12mo, pp. 268. New York : Doubleday & McClure Company. \$1.

Next to Henry George himself Mr. Thomas G. Shearman has long been recognized as perhaps the ablest advocate of the single tax on land values. The distinctive purpose of his little book on "Natural Taxation," of which a new and enlarged edition has just been published, is to show that the scheme of the single tax is merely a simple and natural proposition in economics entirely capable of scientific application. All of Mr. Shearman's illustrations are drawn from ordinary business life, and the book as a whole is addressed to practical business men rather than to theorists.

Cotton. By C. P. Brooks. 8vo, pp. 362. New York : Spon & Chamberlain. \$3.

This volume deals with the successive steps in the cultivation of cotton, its preparation for the market, and manufacture. The author has made a thorough study of the whole subject. A chapter is devoted to the by-products, such as cotton-seed oil and meal. The work is fully and carefully illustrated and altogether makes an exhaustive presentation of an important industrial topic.

Falling Prices and the Remedy. By Lyman F. George. 12mo, pp. 239. Boston : George Book Publishing Company. \$1.

The author of this work makes an argument for a government issue of legal-tender paper money in sufficient volume to insure, through the rise in prices, "the material well-being of the wealth-producing and laboring classes of the nation." He assumes that such an increase in prices as would follow an expansion of the currency would result in the accumulation of wealth by "the masses."

RELIGION AND ETHICS.

The Hope of Immortality. By the Rev. J. E. C. Well-don. 12mo, pp. 356. New York : The Macmillan Company. \$1.50.

The distinguished head master of Harrow School addresses this essay on a well-worn theme to the intelligence and information "not of theological experts especially, but of educated men and women in general." In the development of his argument he keeps in view the agnostic reader who rejects authority but who is "ready to face the facts of human nature and life."

The Christian Revelation. By Borden P. Bowne. 16mo, pp. 107. Cincinnati : Curts & Jennings. 50 cents.

Professor Bowne's purpose in this discussion of the current theories of biblical inspiration is to lead his readers away from abstract speculation and, as he expresses it, "to treat of concrete matters concretely." That is to say, he regards the abstract question as to the inerrancy of the Scriptures as practically irrelevant, holding that the value of the Bible, like that of all knowledge, must be determined "not by abstract theories of what it must be, but rather by study of what it proves itself to be in the religious life of the world."

The Death and Resurrection of Jesus Christ. By Edmond Stapfer. Translated by Louise Seymour Houghton. 12mo, pp. 290. New York : Charles Scribner's Sons. \$1.25.

In the series of essays by Professor Stapfer on the person, authority and work of Jesus Christ the third and concluding volume is devoted to the history of Christ's death and resurrection. These studies by Professor Stapfer have emphasized fresh views of many episodes of the gospel story, and the whole subject is presented in a novel and attractive form. The author's purpose is to state historic facts rather than to indulge in dogmatic conclusions.

History of Dogma. By Adolph Harnack. Translated by Neil Buchanan. Vol. IV. 8vo, pp. 353. Boston : Little, Brown & Co.

The fourth volume of the English translation of Harnack's great work corresponds with the concluding portion of the second volume of the original. It covers the development of Christian doctrine from the Council of Nice to the ninth century.

The Christian Pastor and the Working Church. By Washington Gladden, D.D. 8vo, pp. 490. New York : Charles Scribner's Sons. \$2.50.

This is essentially a practical book, dealing with such topics as "The Call to the Pastorate," "The Church Organization," "The Sunday-School," "The Midweek Service," "The Social Life of the Church," "Woman's Work in the Church," "The Young Men and Women," "The Pastor and the Children," "Missionary Societies and Church Contributions," "Revivals and Revivalism," "The Institutional Church," "The Care of the Poor," etc. Dr. Gladden's experience for many years as a successful pastor certainly qualifies him to speak with authority on these various subjects. The book ought to have special value for all young clergymen and active church workers generally. The book is issued in the series known as "The International Theological Library," although, as Dr. Gladden explains in his preface, the subject treated is applied Christianity, and not theology in any proper sense of the word.

Missions and Politics in Asia. By Robert E. Speer. 12mo, pp. 271. New York: Fleming H. Revell Company. \$1.

This book contains a series of timely studies, by one of the secretaries of the Presbyterian Board of Foreign Missions, of the present political attitudes of the nations of the far East, considered with special reference to the advancement of Christian missions. Especially suggestive are his chapters on China and Japan.

John G. Paton: Missionary to the New Hebrides. An Autobiography. Vol. III. 12mo, pp. 99. New York: Fleming H. Revell Company. 50 cents.

This supplementary volume continues the story of Dr. Paton's life from 1886 to the present time. His famous journeys in behalf of the cause of missions are described at length.

History of the Protestant Episcopal Church in Alabama, 1763-1891. By Walter C. Whitaker. 12mo, pp. 317. Tuscaloosa, Ala.: Published by the Author. \$1.25.

In this history of the Protestant Episcopal Church in Alabama several topics of general interest are treated, as for example, the establishment of a Brotherhood of the Church, similar to the modern Brotherhood of St. Andrew, in Mobile as long ago as 1855; the attitude of Southern dioceses during the period of reconstruction, just after the Civil War; the attempts of the church to deal with the negro problem, and the early institution of an order of deaconesses by Bishop Wilmer. There are portraits of Bishops Cobbs and Wilmer and an excellent index.

Bible Characters: Gideon to Absalom. By Alexander Whyte, D.D. 12mo, pp. 245. New York: Fleming H. Revell Company. \$1.25.

This is the second series of Dr. Whyte's character sketches of biblical personages. In this volume are described the characters of Gideon, Samson, Ruth, Samuel, Saul, David, Jonathan, Solomon, Absalom, and several minor figures in Bible stories. David requires four chapters, devoted, respectively, to his virtues, his vices, his graces, and his services. The sketches are easily and brightly written and calculated to impress spiritual lessons.

Essays on the Principles of Morality, and on the Private and Political Rights and Obligations of Mankind. By Jonathan Dymond. 12mo, pp. 506. Philadelphia: Friends' Book Store.

Jonathan Dymond, the author of this work, died as long ago as 1838. The "Principles of Morality" has been abridged and reprinted by the Philadelphia Yearly Meeting of Friends, and is prefaced by a brief biography of Dymond. The book is interesting, as embodying a complete and well thought out system of moral philosophy. The writer accepts the will of the Deity as the only ultimate standard of right and wrong and assumes "that wherever this will is made known human duty is determined; and that neither the conclusions of philosophers, nor advantages, nor dangers, nor pleasures, nor sufferings, ought to have any passing influence in regulating our conduct."

Guide to True Religion. By P. Woods. 12mo, pp. 301. Baltimore: John Murphy & Co. \$1.

A treatise on religious faith and practice written from the Roman Catholic point of view.

Jewish Services in Synagogue and Home. By Lewis N. Dembitz. 12mo, pp. 487. Philadelphia: The Jewish Publication Society of America. \$1.75.

The Book of Leviticus: A New English Translation printed in colors exhibiting the composite structure of the Book, with explanatory notes. By S. R.

Driver and H. A. White. 8vo, pp. 107. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. \$1.25.

Sin and Holiness, or What It Is to Be Holy. By Rev. D. W. C. Huntington. 12mo, pp. 288. Cincinnati: Curtis & Jennings. \$1.20.

In this our World. By Charlotte Perkins Stetson. 16mo, pp. 217. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. \$1.25.

What are You Doing Here? A Consideration of the Meaning and Aims of Life in Journeying through the World. By Abram Conklin. 16mo, pp. 106. Boston: James H. West. 50 cents.

Daniel's Great Prophecy. The Eastern Question. The Kingdom. By Rev. Nathaniel West, D.D. 8vo, pp. 307. New York: The Hope of Israel Movement, 128 Second St. \$1.

Christian Science and its Problems. By J. H. Bates, Ph.M. 16mo, pp. 141. New York: Eaton & Mains, 50 cents.

The Mistakes of Ingersoll. By Rev. Thomas McGrady. 12mo, pp. 344. Cincinnati: Curtis & Jennings. \$1.

The Seed Basket for Preachers and Teachers: Being a Collection of 300 Sermon Outlines, Seed-Corn, Sunday School Addresses, etc., etc. 18mo, pp. 100. New York: Wilbur B. Ketcham. 50 cents.

Christ in the Daily Meal: or, The Ordinance of the Breaking of Bread. By Norman Fox, D.D. 16mo, pp. 138. New York: Fords, Howard & Hulbert. 50 cents.

Sunny Life of an Invalid. By C. Howard Young. 16mo, pp. 291. Hartford, Conn.: Published by the Author. \$1.

The Panacea for Poverty. By Madison C. Peters, D.D. 12mo, pp. 207. New York: The Bloomingdale Church Press. \$1.

BIOGRAPHY.

The Story of Gladstone's Life. By Justin McCarthy. 8vo, pp. 516. New York: The Macmillan Company. \$6.

Mr. McCarthy's "Story of Gladstone's Life" was noticed in the Review at the time of its appearance last winter. In the second edition, which has just appeared, the author has completed the story, narrating the details of the closing months of Gladstone's life. Several important illustrations have also been added, among these a view of the great statesman's last resting-place in Westminster Abbey.

Life of Napoleon the Third. By Archibald Forbes. 8vo, pp. 355. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. \$3.50.

Archibald Forbes, the war correspondent, has written a very readable biography of the last Emperor of France. The portions relating to the capitulation at Sedan have a fresh interest in connection with accounts of that episode that have been published since Bismarck's death.

LITERATURE AND ART.

Voyages and Travels of Sir John Mandeville. Edited by Arthur Layard. With Introduction by Jacques W. Redway. Eothen. By Alexander William Kinglake. With Introduction by Jacques W. Redway. 8vo, pp. 224 and 245. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

Memoirs of Benvenuto Cellini. Translated by John Addington Symonds. With Introduction by John C. Van Dyke. 8vo, pp. 432. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

In the series of "The World's Great Books" two more volumes have reached us. One of these contains in happy though novel juxtaposition old Sir John Mandeville's "Voyages and Travels," and Kinglake's "Eothen." Mr. Kinglake, who wrote the authoritative history of the Crimean War, had previously published anonymously in 1844 this book, "Eothen," which is a delightful account of travels in the Orient.

It has already become evident that the editors of this series do not propose to decide what are really "the world's great books" by taking a majority opinion of the readers of the one-cent New York newspapers. If they had called upon the public in that way to furnish a list of the best books, it is to be feared that not many of the replies would have included the "Memoirs of Benvenuto Cellini." We are very thankful to the editors for conducting this series in their own way. Cellini's "Memoirs" give us some of that kind of clear insight into the life and point of view of the men who lived in Florence in the period of Italian renaissance that old Samuel Pepys gives us of a great epoch in English history, or that Moritz Busch has just now given us of the life and times of Bismarck.

Vondel's *Lucifer*. Translated by Leonard Charles Van Noppen. 8vo, pp. 438. New York: Continental Publishing Company. \$5.

Strangely enough, this volume, only recently published, contains the first English translation of the great Dutch poet's masterpiece. In an introduction to Mr. Van Noppen's work Professor Carpenter, of Columbia University, assures us that the question of Milton's indebtedness to Vondel is no longer to be considered an open one, but has resolved itself into an inquiry simply as to the amount of the influence exerted. However this may be, there is reason enough for the publication in English of such a classic as the "Lucifer," and it is fortunate that the work could be so artistically done. The book is illustrated with drawings by John Aarts, the eminent Dutch artist. Mr. Van Noppen is himself an American of Dutch descent, and his task has evidently been a labor of love. He prefaces his rendering of the poem with a sketch of Vondel's life and times and an interpretative essay on the "Lucifer."

The Bookman. Vol. VII., March, 1898—August, 1898. 8vo, pp. 536. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.

If one were to draw conclusions from the portrait representation in its pages it would seem that the *Bookman* is giving an increasing amount of attention to the drama. In the last volume, for example, one of the most effective pictures is a reproduction of Mr. S. Arlent Edwards' admirable drawing of Miss Maude Adams as *Babbie* in "The Little Minister." There is also an excellent portrait of Mr. J. H. Stoddard, the veteran actor. But on the whole the *Bookman* uses most of its space for the treatment of purely literary topics and matters connected with the pursuit of letters as a profession.

The Music Dramas of Richard Wagner. By Albert Lavignac. Translated by Esther Singleton. 12mo, pp. 515. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. \$2.50.

We have in this volume a Frenchman's contribution to Wagnerian literature. The book is expository rather than critical. It is interesting because of its point of view and the author's determination to induce as many as possible of his countrymen to follow in his own footsteps and make the yearly pilgrimage to Bayreuth. There are portraits of Wagner, his son Siegfried, and the great Bayreuth conductors, including the late Anton Seidl.

SCHOOL AND COLLEGE TEXT-BOOKS.

Goldsmith's *Vicar of Wakefield*. With Notes and Introduction by William Henry Hudson. 16mo, pp. xxxiii, 264. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 50 cents.

From Chaucer to Tennyson. (Chautauqua Reading Circle course, 1898-99.) By Henry A. Beers. Illus., 12mo, pp. 325. Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent. \$1.

First Lessons in German. By Sigmon M. Stern. 12mo, pp. 299. New York: Henry Holt & Co. \$1.

Der Praktische Deutsche. By U. Jos. Bailey. 12mo, pp. 251. New York: William R. Jenkins. \$1.

A Course in German Composition, Conversation and Grammar Review. By Wilhelm Bernhardt. 12mo, pp. 242. Boston: Ginn & Co. 90 cents.

Wilhelm Tell. By Friedrich Schiller. Edited, with Introduction, Notes and Vocabulary, by Arthur H. Palmer. 12mo, pp. 478. New York: Henry Holt & Co. \$1.

Schiller's Wilhelm Tell. With Introduction and Notes. By W. H. Carruth. 12mo, pp. 306. New York: The Macmillan Company. 50 cents.

Selections from Jean Paul Friedrich Richter. Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by George Stuart Collins. 12mo, pp. 163. New York: American Book Company. 60 cents.

Die Komödie auf der Hochschule. By Friedrich Helbig. Edited, with an Introduction and Notes, by Benjamin W. Wells. Boards, 12mo, pp. 143. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 35 cents.

Die Freiherren von Gemperlein. By Marie von Ebner-Eschenbach. Edited, with an Introduction, Notes and an Appendix, by A. R. Hohlfield. Boards, 12mo, pp. 137. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 35 cents.

Der Zerbrochene Krug. By Heinrich Zschokke. Edited, with Introduction, Notes and Vocabulary, by Edward S. Joyes. Boards, 12mo, pp. 88. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30 cents.

Norwegian Grammar and Reader. With Notes and Vocabulary. By Julius E. Olson. 12mo, pp. 230. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co.

The Mason School Music Course. Book Two. By Luther Whiting Mason, Fred H. Butterfield and Osbourne McConathy. 12mo, pp. xiii, 111. Boston: Ginn & Co. 40 cents.

A Short Course in Music. Book One. By Frederic H. Ripley and Thomas Tapper. 8vo, pp. 144. New York: American Book Company. 35 cents.

Europe in the Nineteenth Century. (Chautauqua Reading Circle course, 1898-99.) By Harry Pratt Judson. Illus., 12mo, pp. 342. Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent. \$1.

Lectures on Elementary Mathematics. By Joseph Louis Lagrange. Translated by Thomas J. McCormack. 12mo, pp. 172. Chicago: The Open Court Publishing Company. \$1.

An Advanced Arithmetic. By G. A. Wentworth. 12mo, pp. 415. Boston: Ginn & Co. \$1.

An Algebraic Arithmetic. By S. E. Coleman. 12mo, pp. 164. New York: The Macmillan Company. 60 cents.

New School Algebra. By G. A. Wentworth. 12mo, pp. 412. Boston: Ginn & Co. \$1.12.

Physiology, Experimental and Descriptive. By Buel P. Colton. 12mo, pp. 443. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. \$1.12.

Walks and Talks in the Geological Field. (Chautauqua Reading Circle course, 1898-99.) By Alexander Winchell. Revised and Edited by Frederick Starr. Illus., 12mo, pp. 353. Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent. \$1.

Plant Life. By Charles Reid Barnes. 12mo, pp. 438. New York: Henry Holt & Co. \$1.12.

Seed-Travellers. Studies of the Methods of Dispersal of Various Common Seeds. By Clarence Moores Weed. 12mo, pp. 58. Boston: Ginn & Co. 30 cents.

Botany: The Story of Plant Life. By Julia MacNair Wright. 16mo, pp. 208. Philadelphia: The Penn Publishing Company. 50 cents.

The Elements of Physics. By Alfred Payson Gage. 12mo, pp. 381. Boston: Ginn & Co. \$1.20.

Astronomy: The Sun and His Family. By Julia MacNair Wright. 16mo, pp. 208. Philadelphia: The Penn Publishing Company. 50 cents.

The New Education in Penmanship. By L. H. Hausam. 12mo, pp. 138. Salina, Kans.: The Central Kansas Publishing Company.

FICTION.

A Bachelor Maid and Her Brother. By I. T. Thurston. 12mo, pp. 335. Boston: A. I. Bradley & Co. \$1.25.

A Bride of Japan. By Carlton Dawe. 12mo, pp. 268. Chicago: Herbert S. Stone & Co. \$1.50.

A Damsel Errant. By Amélie Rives (Princess Troubetzkoy). Illus., 24mo, pp. 211. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company. 75 cents.

A Daughter of Two Nations. By Ella Gale McClelland. Illus., 16mo, pp. 308. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. \$1.25.

A Duel with Destiny, and Other Stories. By Edith Townsend Everett. 12mo, pp. 162. Philadelphia: Drexel Biddle. 75 cents.

A Fight for Freedom. A Story of the Land of the Tsar. By Gordon Stables. 12mo, pp. 328. Boston: A. I. Bradley & Co. \$1.25.

An Irish Patriot. By Walter Fortescue. Paper, 12mo, pp. 412. New York: F. Tennyson Neely. 50 cents.

Anita, the Cuban Spy. By Gilson Willets. 12mo, pp. 405. New York: F. Tennyson Neely. \$1.

Ariel; or The Author's World. A Metaphysical Story. By Mary Platt Parmele. Paper, 12mo, pp. 79. New York: The Alliance Publishing Company. 25 cents.

A Runaway Couple: A Story of New York Society. By Oliver Lowrey. 16mo, pp. 454. New York: F. Tennyson Neely. 50 cents.

As Having Nothing. By Hester Caldwell Oakley. 12mo, pp. 330. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.

At Aboukir and Acre. A Story of Napoleon's Invasion of Egypt. By G. A. Henty. Illus., 12mo, pp. 331. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. \$1.50.

Bijli the Dancer. A novel of modern India. By James Blythe Patton. Illus., 12mo, pp. 344. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. \$1.50.

Bonnie Mackirby. An International Episode. By Laura Dayton Fessenden. 16mo, pp. 240. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. 75 cents.

Both Sides the Border. A Tale of Hotspur and Glendower. By G. A. Henty. Illus., 12mo, pp. 378. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. \$1.50.

Cast Thou the First Stone. A Story of Spanish Intrigue and Treachery. By Frances Marie Norton. Paper, 12mo, pp. 495. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co. 50 cents.

Cross Trails. A Spanish-American Novel. By Victor Waite. Illus., 12mo, pp. 456. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. \$1.50.

Dorothy Draycott's To-morrows. By Virginia F. Townsend. 12mo, pp. 382. Boston: Lee & Shepard. \$1.50.

Fortuna: A Story of Wall Street. By James Blanchard Clews. 12mo, pp. 215. New York: J. S. Ogilvie Publishing Company. \$1.

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In Strange Quarters. A Story of Constantinople. By Edwin Hodder. Illus., 12mo, pp. 312. Boston: A. I. Bradley & Co. \$1.25.

Ionia; Land of Wise Men and Fair Women. By Alexander Craig. Illus., 12mo, pp. 301. Chicago: E. A. Weeks Company. \$1.25.

Ivy Meredith, Or A Season in the South. By Celia Armagh. 12mo, pp. 273. Boston: A. I. Bradley & Co. \$1.25.

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Peggy of the Bartons. By B. M. Croker. 12mo, pp. 442. New York: R. F. Fenno & Co. \$1.25.

Philip Barton's Secret. By Mrs. May Anderson Hawkins. Illus., 12mo, pp. 228. Cincinnati: Curtis & Jennings. 85 cents.

Rose à Charlotte. An Acadien Romance. By Marshall Saunders. Illus., 12mo, pp. 516. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. \$1.50.

Seven Months a Prisoner. By J. V. Hadley. 16mo, pp. 258. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 75 cents.

Shantytown Sketches. By Anthony J. Drexel Biddle. 12mo, pp. 67. Philadelphia: Drexel Biddle. 25 cents.

Smoking Flax. By Hallie Erminie Rives. 16mo, pp. 232. New York: F. Tennyson Neely. 50 cents.

Sons of Adversity. A Romance of Queen Elizabeth's Time. By L. Cope Cornford. Illus., 12mo, pp. 315. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. \$1.25.

The Boys with Old Hickory. A Story of the War of 1812. By Everett T. Tomlinson. 12mo, pp. 352. Boston: Lee & Shepard. \$1.50.

The Disciple. By Paul Bourget. Paper, 12mo, pp. 341. New York: F. Tennyson Neely. 50 cents.

The Dull Miss Archinard. By Anne Douglas Sedgwick. 12mo, pp. 287. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. \$1.25.

INDEX TO PERIODICALS.

Unless otherwise specified, all references are to the September numbers of periodicals.
For table of abbreviations see last page.

- Admirals, Some American, C. S. Clark, USM.
Agriculture, Englishwomen and, Virginia M. Crawford, CR.
Alaska of To-day, A. P. Swineford, HM.
Alsace, The Question of, RPP, August 10.
Alternating Current Distribution, H. A. Wagner, CasM.
America, Spain, and France, E. Olivier, CM.
American People in Fiction, The, Mme. Mary Bigot, BU, August.
Anglo-American Alliance, An, C. W. Dilke, PMM.
Anglo-American Versus a European Combination, An, R. Temple, NAR.
Anglo-Russian Understanding, An, H. W. Wilson, NatR.
Anglo-Saxon (Celtic?) and Germanic Alliance, M. von Brant, DeutR, August.
Animal World, Purpose of Color in, C. M. Weed, APS.
Annexation Problem, The, R. L. Bridgman, NEM.
Anthropology in Italy, Criminal—II, Helen Zimmern, GBag.
Anti-Slavery Days, T. W. Higginson, Out.
Arctic, Days in the, F. G. Jackson, Harp.
Arctic Sea, The Perils of the, W. Grenfell, LH.
Arles, Country Life Round, Count Remacle, RP, August 15.
Army and Navy, Cooperation Between the, P. H. Colomb, JMSI.
Army, Pack Service in the United States, A. C. Cantley, Chaut.
Arnold, Matthew, The Poetry of, T. W. Hunt, MRNY.
Art, Decorative, in the Paris Salons of 1888, H. Frantz, MA.
Art, Democratic, O. L. Triggs, F.
Art; Expressive "Line," F. Wedmore, IntS.
Art in the Catholic Church, FrL.
Art in Ireland: The Royal Hibernian Academy, MA.
Art, Queen Victoria's Treasures of, F. S. Robinson, MA.
Art Students, Advice Given to, W. Morris, AI.
Art, The National Competition of Schools of, Art.
Art Treasures of America, The, W. Sharp, NC.
Artisan Well Bores, H. G. Howard, WWM.
Artists, The Pastimes of Some, AJ.
Astronomer, Reminiscences of an—II, S. Newcomb, AM.
Astronomy of the "Canterbury Tales," E. W. Maunder, K.
Astronomy: The Bond of the Universe, E. W. Maunder, LH.
Australian Experiments in Industry, Helen P. Bates, AAPs.
Australian Federation Bill, Failure of, W. H. Fitchett, CanM.
Australian Horse, The First, J. T. Ryan, RRM, July.
Australian Legends, Curious, O. Smeaton, WR.
Austro-Hungarian Floating Exhibition, BTJ, August.
Authors, The First Books of Some American, L. S. Livingston, Bkman.
Bainbridge, Sharpley, The Collection of, AJ.
Baku Petroleum District of Russia, D. A. Louis, EngM.
Ballads and Songs of Colonial Days, S. Schell, WM.
Balloon in Warfare, The, H. Hergesell, F.
Bankers' Association, Annual Convention of American, BankNY.
Banking as a Profession, D. R. Forgan, BankNY.
Banking Methods, Modern, BankNY.
Barber Shop as a Menace to Health, A. V. Suiter, San.
Barnaby, Sir Nathaniel, CasM.
Baseball in England and Its Rivals, J. Wilson, Str.
Bastille, The, C. Whibley, Mac.
Battleship, The Modern ("The Roe's Egg"), R. Hughes, Cos.
Battle Under the New Conditions, H. C. Davis, JMSI.
Beneficence, The Hymns of Systematic, Mish.
Benjamin, Judah Philip, Reminiscences of, Baron Pollock GBag.
Bernhardt Sarah, H. M. Strong, WR.
Bigotry Bacillus, The, E. Hubbard, Men.
Billinghurst, P. J., Designer and Illustrator, IntS.
Birds, The Migration of, P. Friedrich, DH, Heft 18.
Bismarck Training, H. B. Bare, IntS.
Bisbing, H. S., An American Cattle Painter, J. M. Erwin, FrL.
Bismarck, Count Herbert, H. von Poschinger, DeutR, August.
Bismarck, Prince Otto von, C. Lowe, AMRR; W. R. Thayer, AM; G. McDermot, CW; F. Greenwood, Cosmog; FR; W. H. Dawson, FR; G. Tuch, Men; J. M. Chapple, NatM; E. Castelar, NAR; Elsa d'Esteer-Keeling, SunM.
Bismarck and Motley, J. P. Grund, NAR.
Bismarck as a Phrase-Maker, M. Smith, Bkman.
Bismarck in His Home, Susan W. Selfridge, Out.
Bismarck in His Writings, Countess von Krockow, Out.
Bismarck, The Greatness of, W. T. Stead, AMRR.
"Blind Tom" as He Is To-day, J. J. A. Becket, LHJ.
Bookbinding, Something New in, W. H. Edmunds, MA.
Book Decoration, Elizabeth M. Hallowell, AI.
Books of the Coming Year, D. September 16.
Botany, Economic, J. R. Jackson, K.
Boys' Industrial Association, W. F. Gibbons, Chaut.
Boys, Take Care of the, B. P. Neuman, FR.
Brandywine, The Picturesque, T. Dreiser, Dem.
Bridge Construction, European and American, G. Lindenthal, EngM.
Browning's "Paracelsus," Florence L. Snow, MRNY.
Brunetière and French Literature, Annie MacDonell, Bkman.
Burne-Jones, Sir Edward, W. Sharp, AM; R. de la Sizeranne, F. Khnopff, and M. H. Spielmann, MA.
Bush, Isidor, Men.
Cable, An All-British or Anglo-American Pacific, C. Bright, FR.
Cable Laying, Submarine, A. P. Crouch, Str.
Cain of Nations, The, D. Bronson, NatM.
Cambridge, A Day of My Life at, M. Dods, PMM.
Camera Craft, H. S. Ward, AJ.
Campbell, Dr. F. J., W. T. Stead, RRL.
Canada, Dominion of, The Makers of the—XI, J. G. Bourinot, CanM.
Canada's International Status, C. H. Tupper, CanM.
Canoe Cruising and the Cruising Canoe, F. K. Webb, FrL.
Canteen Management, H. A. Walsh, USM.
Caricatures, Curiosities in Ancient, J. H. Schooling, Str.
Carlism, The Coming of, E. J. Dillon, CR.
Carlist Policy in Spain, The, Marquis de Ruigny and C. Metcalfe, FR.
Carlyle, Unpublished Letters of, C. T. Copeland, AM.
Carrière Eugène, M. Morhardt, MA.
Chamberlain's, Joseph, Foreign Policy and the Dreyfus Case, G. McDermot, CW.
Chaplain Monument, The, A. G. Doughty, CanM.
Chateaubriand in 1812, E. Biré, RG, August.
Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul Railroad, S. F. Van Oss, JF.
Child, Development of the Inner Life of the, Maria Kraus-Boelte, Kind.
Children, A Study in School, Catherine J. Dodd, NatR.
Children, Literature for, R. Burton, NAR.
Chili's Financial Position, The Truth About, J. Samson, JF.
China, A Recent Business Tour in, C. A. Moreing, NC.
China, The Arsenal of, E. H. Parker, USM.
China, The British Record in, A. Krause, FR.
China, The Vivisection of, E. Reclus, AM.
China Painting: Landscapes in Monochrome, Marie Richert, AA.
China Painting: Monograms on China, Anna B. Leonard, AA.
Chinese Fiction, G. T. Candlin, OC.
Chinese Musical Instruments, Laura B. Starr, Mus.
Chopin: Can He Be Called a Classical Composer? Mus.
Christ, The Likeness of, W. Bayliss, CR.
Christian Legends of the Hebrides, A. Goodrich-Freer, CR.
Christianity? What Was Primitive, W. S. Lilly, NC.
Church History, Popular, J. H. Round, CR.
Church, The Open, and the Closed Church, J. W. Magruder, MRNY.
Church in the Navy, The, H. H. Lewis, Dem.
Coinage, Curiosities of American, A. E. Outerbridge, APS.
City, The Ideal, E. Fournière, RSoc, August.
Clark, James, The Work of, A. L. Baldry, IntS.
Colleges, The Older and the Newer, C. W. Eliot, EdRNY.
Colonial Housewives, Grace M. H. Wakeman, AMonM.
Colonies, The Evolution of—III, J. Collier, APS.
Colossus of Rhodes, The, B. I. Wheeler, CM.
Combination, The Use and Abuse of, W. S. Lilly, HomR.
Commerce, New Opportunities for American, W. F. Cord, AM.
Company Promoting "a la Mode," W. R. Lawson, NatR.
Company Promoting and the Public, BankL.
"Conception of God, The," The Real Issue in, G. H. Howison, PRev.
Congo Railway, A Trip on the New, W. H. Bentley, CJ.
Congress, Memorable Events in, M. Mannerling, NatM.
Conjuring, Mr. David Devant on the Art of, W. Pain, YM.
Couriers and Their Work, W. B. Robertson, Cass.
Covites: A Race that Lives in Mountain Caves, Sarah B. Elliott, LHJ.
Crime—III, J. H. Schooling, PMM.
Cromwell, Oliver, W. Kirkus, NW.
Cross, Forms of the Signs of the, J. F. Hewitt, WR.

- Cuba, Life and Society in Old, J. S. Jenkins, CM.
Cuba and Puerto Rico, Consular Commercial Report of, San.
Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippines, The Commercial
Promise of, G. B. Waldron, McCl.
Cuba? What Is to Be Done With, M. W. Hazeltine, NAR.
Cuban Governor, Confessions of a, Black.
Curwen, Mrs. John Spencer, Interview With, Mrs. Crosby
Adams, Mus.
Currency, A New Standard and a New, W. P. Sterns,
JPEcon.
Custer's Last Fight as Seen by Two Moon, H. Garland, McCl.
Cyanide Process of Treating Gold Ores, J. W. Richards,
CasM.
Cycling in Portugal, C. Edwardes, Bad.
"Cyranos de Bergerac," C. de Kay, Crit.
Czar's Manifesto to the Nations, The, W. T. Stead, RRL.
Dalketh Palace, H. Scott, PMM.
Davidson, Miss Lillias Campbell, YW.
Day, William R., H. Macfarland, AMRR.
Deaf-Mutes and Their Sign Language, W. A. Jansen, NatM.
Decorations for a Library, Some, G. Moira and F. L. Jen-
kins, IntS.
Deerfield: The Little Brown House, G. Sheldon, NEM.
Democracy, Twentieth Century, J. Macy, PSQ.
Dependents, The Relief and Care of—VI, H. A. Mills, AJS.
Des Moines, Architectural—II, E. E. Clark, MidM.
Devil-Fish, T. Bullen, C.
Diamond Mining in South Africa, T. H. Leggett, CasM.
Diseases, Preventable, H. S. T. Harris, JMSI.
Divine Comedy, The Angels of the, GM.
Doctrine, Religious, Not Theological Creed, C. Ford, WR.
Dogs, A Few More Words on, J. Hudson, WR.
Dogs, Sportsmen's—The Spaniels, O.
Doshisha, Japanese Christians and the, M. L. Gordon, MisR.
Dreyfus, Captain, Letters of, NatR.
Drumgoole, John Christopher, J. E. Dougherty, CREV.
Durkheim's Sociological Objectivism, G. Tosti, AJS.
Dyeing of Fabrics, The, F. H. Smith, Art.
Earthquake in India, An, J. E. Longford, WWM.
Ebers, The Late Dr. Georg, at Home, P. G. Hubert, Crit.
Education, Cooperation in, J. L. Pickard, Ed.
Education: Examinations, F. Paulsen, EdRNY.
Education, Secondary, in the United States—II, E. E. Brown,
SRev.
Education, The Use of Higher, W. T. Harris, EdRNY.
Educational Movements in England, W. K. Hill, SRev.
Egypt, Notes on, A. Vulliet, BU, August.
Electric, The Lady of, K. E. Phelps, AJ.
Electric Fountain, The, A. Lord, Str.
Electric Traction, Application of Alternating Currents to—
II, C. H. Davis and H. C. Forbes, EngM.
Electricity: Alternating Current Distribution, H. A. Wag-
ner, CasM.
Elwell, Frank Edwin, Emeline G. Crommelin, OM.
Emigrant Education, G. J. Holyoake, NC.
Enameler, The Art of the, F. Miller, AJ.
English Composition in the High School, F. A. Barbour,
SRev.
Epistemology and Experience, A. K. Rogers, PRev.
Eskimos, the Most Northern People on Earth, R. E. Peary,
HM.
Etchingham Letters, The, C.
European Concert, The, Count Benedetti, RDM, August 1.
Evolution and Theology, O. Pfeiderer, NW.
Evolution, Social and Individual, H. Jones, NW.
Farmer's Year, A, H. R. Haggard, Long.
Fillmore, John Comfort, Mus.
Fire Insurance in New England, C. W. Burpee, NEM.
Fish Propagation in California, A. V. La Motte, OM.
Fisherman, Peculiar—II, L. G. Mulhouse, WWM.
Fitchett, Rev. W. H., YM.
Football by an Old Rugbeian, E. F. T. Bennett, Bad.
Forest Preserve, Bitter Root, R. U. Goode, NatGM.
France, Bank of, The Operations of, from 1876 to 1897, BankL.
France, Contemporary Education in, G. Compayre, EdRNY.
France: The Chamber of Representatives, H. Van Doors-
laer, RG, August.
France, The Conservative Party in, RefS, August 16.
France: The Empire, Bismarck, and the Luxemburg Ques-
tion in 1867, NR, August 15.
Franco-Russian Alliance and the Balkan States, RP, Au-
gust 1.
French-Canadian Decisions, R. V. Rogers, GBag.
French on the Niger, The, F. A. Edwards, GM.
Friends, Among, Alice M. Earle, NEM.
Friendships, On, I. A. Taylor, Black.
Friesland, Cruising in, C. Davies, Bad.
Froude, J. A., The Historical Method of, F. Harrison, NC.
Geological Waterways Across Central America, J. W. Spen-
cer, APS.
George, Henry, Mrs. C. F. McLean, A.
German Women, A German Novelist on, Elizabeth Lee,
Cosmo.
Germany, E. Verlant, RG, August.
Germany, Condition of Social Democracy in, C. Schmidt,
JPEcon.
Gheel, the Insane Colony of Belgium, J. H. Gore, CW.
Girl-Workers of London, The: The Costumière, YW.
Gladstone, William Ewart, G. W. Smalley, Harp; P. Ha-
nelle, NR, August 1 and 15; R. A. Armstrong, NW; A.
Charlot, RG, August.
Gladstone, William Ewart ("Burying Caesar—and After"),
WR.
Gladstone, William Ewart: Conversations with and Some
Unpublished Letters, S. Gopcevic, Deutr, August.
Gladstone, William Ewart: The Equipment of, T. C. Craw-
ford, Cos.
Glass, Curiosities of Stained, E. R. Suffling, CJ.
Glass Painting for Domestic Purposes, Anna Siedenburgh, AA.
Goethe's Iphigenia, The Original of, Elise J. Allen, Mus.
Gold Coast Gossip, G. C. Rothery, Bad.
Gold and Other Resources of the Far West, J. A. Latcha, F.
Golf Links, One of Nature's, C. W. Barnes, O.
Good, The Concept of the, W. G. Everett, PRev.
Goodyear, Charles, Sketch of, C. Dooley, APS.
Grant's Life in the West—Book III, J. W. Emerson, MidM.
Gray, David, The Home and Haunts of, J. H. Young, Scots,
August.
Grazing-Lands, Our Public, F. V. Coville, F.
Great Britain:
A Lady's Impressions of the House of Commons, NatR.
Crimping British Crews Abroad, USM.
Educational Movements in England, W. K. Hill, SRev.
Great Britain and Russia, C. F. Hamilton, CanM.
Prime Ministers I Have Known, T. H. S. Escott, CJ.
Protection of British Commerce in War Time, C. Beres-
ford, CasM.
Social Life in the British Army, Harp.
Some Surrey Seats, A. de Burgh, Cass.
The Essential Elements of Modern Sea-Power, P. H. Co-
lomb, EngM.
Unparliamentary Expressions in the House of Commons,
M. MacDonald, NC.
Women in Local Administration, WR.
Greece, A Little Jaunt in, Maud Burnside, AI.
Greek Music from the Modern Point of View, C. W.
Seldenadel, SRev.
Greek Theater, The, L. Irwell, R.
Grouse, Carting the, W. T. Hall, Bad.
Guns, Q. F., for Artillery in the Field, F. B. Emslie, JMSI.
Hammerstein, Oscar ("The Romance of an Emigrant Boy"),
Cos.
Hardie, Rodert Gordon, Portrait Painter, W. H. Downes,
NEM.
Harlem Heights, The Battle of, W. L. Calver, HM.
Harnack's "Chronology of Ancient Christian Literature,"
C. M. Mead, HomR.
Hartley's, J. Scott, Sculptures, AA.
Hawaii, A Commercial Traveler in, J. R. Musick, HM.
Hawaii, Education in, Mrs. Cora D. Martin, Ed.
Hawaii, Our Pacific Paradise, Kathryn Jarboe, MM.
Hawaiian Annexation, Leprosy and the, B. Foster, NAR.
"Helbeck of Bannisdale," A Catholic's View of, R. F.
Clarke, NC.
Hemmett, John C., PA.
Heredia, M. de, The Sonnets of, J. C. Bailey, FR.
Heron's, A Chat About, Duke of Argyll, Bad.
Hervey, Frederic, Earl and Bishop, TB.
Hobson, Richmond Pearson, H. G. Benners, Dem.
Hobson, Richmond Pearson ("A Gritty Christian Gentle-
man"), F. H. Stanyan, NatM.
Hobson, Richmond Pearson ("A Modest Hero"), Crit.
Holidays, The Humors of, Mrs. Haweis, YW.
Holstein, Charles L., GBag.
Holy Ghost in Spiritual Perception, The, J. R. T. Lathrop,
MRNY.
Holy Graal, The High History of the, E. G. Gardner, M.
Honduras, Adventures in Spanish, R. H. Savage, HM.
Hoppner, John, J. C. Van Dyke, CM.
Horsfall's, Bruce, Monotypes, R. Riordan, AA.
Horseless Carriages in Paris, C. I. Barnard, Cos.
Human Development, The Course of, W. J. McGee, F.
Humber, Ports of the, W. J. Gordon, LH.
Hus, John, W. H. Crawford, MRNY.
Hygiene of Instruction, G. W. Fitz, San.
Hygienic Congress at Madrid, P. Brousse, RSoc, August.
Ice Sports in Canada, H. Greenwood, WWM.
Ignatius of Antioch, The Christianity of, A. C. McGiffert,
NW.
Illiteracy in the United States, Significance of, A. D. Mayo,
Ed.
Illustrators, Some Contemporary, H. W. Bromhead, AJ.
"Imperialism," The Economic Basis of, C. A. Conant, NAR.
Imperialism, The New American, E. Dicey, NC.
"In Memoriam" as a Representative Poem, E. Parsons,
HomR.
Indian Dolls and Their Cradles, Mrs. A. L. Dickerman,
WWM.
Indian (East) Friends, My—III, F. Max Müller, Cosmo.
Inheritance-Tax Statutes and Decisions, M. West, JPEcon.
Insane, Curability of the, F. B. Sanborn, C. Rev.
Insect Miners, F. Enock, K.

- Insect Musicians, Anna B. Comstock, Chant.
 Ireland, The Latest Reform in, J. J. Clancy, NAR.
 Irish History, Two Chapters of, 1598-1798, H. F. Hall, Mac.
 Irish Home Industries—Point Lace, Mary Gorges, CJ.
 Irish People at Home, The, Katharine Tynan, FrL.
 Irish Wit and Humor, Elsa D'Esterre-Keeling, LH.
 Iron-Mining, A Revolution in, F. A. Talbot, CJ.
 Iron Work, Bent, E. Clarke, AI.
 Irrigation: "Annex Arid America," G. H. Maxwell, IA.
 Irrigation in Montana, J. Shomaker, IA.
 Irrigation Works, Unprofitable, T. S. Van Dyke, IA.
 Italy, An Impeachment of Modern, "Ouida," RRL.
 Italy, Object-Lessons for, A. V. Vecchi, RN, August.
 Italy, Social Problems in, A. Ebray, RPP, August 10.
 Italy, The Present Condition of, C. Vidari, NA, August 1.
 Jackson, Thomas ("A Warning"), G. S. Street, Cosmop.
 Jamaica Past and Present, N. S. Rankin, CanM.
 Japan, New, T. Yokoi, CR.
 Japan, The Year in, G. W. Knox, MisR.
 Jersey Cattle, J. T. Newman, EI.
 Jews to Palestine, The Return of, O. J. Simon, NC.
 Joachim, Joseph, A Chat About, Edith L. Winn, Mus.
 Johnson Island Conspiracy, F. B. Stevenson, FrL.
 Jokai, Dr. Maurice: A Sketch, N. Blanchan, Crit.
 Jokes, Practical, I. Browne, GBag.
 Journalists, Experiences of Lady, Lilly Binger, Cass.
 Jungfrau Railway, The, E. R. Dawson, Scrib.
 Katmu-Dogbakh War, The, W. P. Drury, USM.
 Kindergarten Department of the N. E. A., Annual Convention of the, Kind.
 Kipling, Rudyard, as a Poet, F. G. Gilman, A.
 Kitchener and Khartoum, A. Griffiths, FR.
 Klondyke, The Pilgrimage to the, F. Palmer, F.
 Krefeld, P. Lerch, DH, Heft 15.
 Kropotkin, P., Autobiography of, AM.
 Kropotkin, Prince, R. E. Ely, AM.
 Labor, The Irksomeness of, T. Veblen, AJS.
 Ladies' Clubs in London, A. Shurmer, Scots, August.
 Land Credit, O. Taft, Jr., JPEcon.
 Lang, Andrew, and the Murder of Cardinal Beaton, D. H. Fleming, CR.
 La Verna, A Pilgrimage to, H. D. Rawnsley, Black.
 Law of the Land, The—X., W. A. McClean, GBag.
 Leiter Wheat Deal, J. M. C. Hampson, NatM.
 Leuthen, The Battle of, F. Dixon, TB.
 Libraries of the United States, Public, A. Schinz, BE, August.
 Libya, Prehistoric, and Its Pignies, N. Patterson, CanM.
 Life Annuities, State-Aided Pensions, etc., T. Fatkin, BankL.
 Life Assurance Societies, Australian, JF.
 Life, Old and New Views on the Origin of, O. Loew, DeutR, August.
 Lincoln, Mary Todd, Emily T. Helm, McCl.
 "Line," Expressive, F. Wedmore, IntS.
 Linton, Mrs. Lynn, Beatrice Harraden, Bkman.
 Literature, American, Relation of, to American Life, F. B. Sawvel, Ed.
 Literature, English, at the Colleges and Universities, G. Beardsley, EdENY.
 Literature: How to Make Its Study Interesting, S. Thurber, SRev.
 Literature: Time-Gauge in Letters, S. R. Elliott, D, September 1.
 London, South—VI., W. Besant, PMM.
 London, Underground, Str.
 Loras, Right Rev. Mathias, J. Ireland, CW.
 Louis II., King, of Bavaria, A. Mackay-Smith, Harp.
 Louis Philippe, When He Taught School in Philadelphia, C. Phillips, LHJ.
 Louise Ulrique, Queen of Sweden, F. M. F. Skene, Black.
 Lowell, James Russell, and His Friends—XII., E. E. Hale, Out.
 Lowell, James Russell, in Spain, Crit.
 Madonnas of Poetry, Some, Anna B. McGill, R.
 Mails, Found in Uncle Sam's, Laura B. Starr, Str.
 Maine, Sir Henry ("A Lawyer With a Style"), W. Wilson, AM.
 Malebranche, Nicolas, L. Lévy-Bruhl, OC.
 Malthus, Thomas Robert, GMag.
 Manual Training, The Philosophy of—IV., C. H. Henderson, APS.
 Manufacturing in the United States, C. C. Adams, Chaut.
 Marine Biological Laboratory, A. G. Maddren, OM.
 "Mark Twain," The Real, C. Smythe, PMM.
 Meran, The Open-Air Folks-Play at, CW.
 Meredith, George, The Novels of, C. A. Pratt, Crit.
 Metal Workers' Exhibition, The, J. S. Gardner, MA.
 Mexico, Religion and the Church in, C. E. Jeffery, M.
 Mexico, The Women of, Marilla Adams, Chaut.
 Michelet: 1798-1874, W. M. Sloane, Crit.
 Military Discipline, J. Chester, JMSI.
 Miracles, Current Delusions Concerning, J. H. Denison, NW.
 Mission and Its Functions, A. MisH.
 Mission Field, The Romance of the—IV., F. Burns, WWM.
 Missionary, The American, G. F. Hoar, MisH.
 Missions, A Great Exigency in the Work of, A. T. Pierson, MisR.
 Missions in Korea, Christian, R. E. Speer, MisR.
 Missions in Korea, Medical, C. C. Vinton, MisR.
 Missions in Persia, Medical, R. E. Speer, MisR.
 Monarchies and Republics, F. M. Bird, Lipp.
 Money, Fiat, in New England, F. F. McLeod, AAPS.
 Monhegan, Historical and Picturesque, A. G. Pettengill, NEM.
 "Monroe Doctrine," The Original Intention of, T. A. Cook, FR.
 Moody, Dwight L., as a Man of Affairs, W. C. Wilkinson, HomR.
 Moreau, Gustave, C. J. Holmes, CR.
 Mormon Theogony, J. D. Gillilan, MRNY.
 Morocco Question and the War, The, W. B. Harris, NatR.
 Mosquitoes, Curious Facts About, L. O. Howard, HM.
 Moths, The Case, Margaret T. D. Badenoch, APS.
 Music—XI., F. Reddall, WM.
 Music, A Visit to the Royal College of, F. Banfield, Cass.
 Music-Halls, J. Hudson, Scots, August.
 Musical Intelligence Versus Musical Instinct, J. Moos, Mus.
 Musketry and Tactics, S. Murray, USM.
 Myth, The Philosophy of, I. F. Russell, MRNY.
 Napoleon, the Great Adventurer, EI.
 Napoleon Bonaparte, Autobiography of—IV., Cos.
 Nasr-ed-din, Stories of, C. Moffett, McCl.
 Naushon, an Island of New England, G. Kobbé, CM.
 Naval Gun Factory at Washington, A. M. Laise, NatM.
 Naval Heroes, Our—III., Admiral Alexander Viscount Bridport, V. Bridport, and A. N. Hood, USM.
 Naval Repair Ships, A. B. Willits, CasM.
 Naval Surgeons Ashore and Afloat, F. R. Lee, Chaut.
 Navy, Growth of the American, Minna Irving, MidM.
 Nelson Centenary, The, D. Sladen, MA.
 Newcomb, Simon, Personal Reminiscences of—II., AM.
 New England, An Island of, G. Kobbé, CM.
 New England Colonists, Mary E. Springer, AMonM.
 Newfoundland, French Rights in, P. McGrath, NatR.
 Newspaper in War Time, The Modern, A. Brisbane, Cos.
 New York: East Side Living Conditions, GMag.
 New York in the Seventies, M. E. W. Sherwood, Lipp.
 New York, The Better—A Symposium, MM.
 New York: Why Is It Disliked? A. McEwen, MM.
 Nietzsche, Friedrich Wilhelm ("A Mad Philosopher"), H. T. Peck, Bkman.
 Niger, in the Bend of the, F. Lollée, NR, August 1.
 North Cape, A Jaunt to the, Isabel McCrackan, OM.
 North Sea Revolution, A. W. Wood, GM.
 Nurse Association, Chicago Visiting, Harriet Fulmer, CRev.
 Oil Industry of Echigo, Japan, The, BTJ, August.
 Olives and Oil-Making at Sorrento, CJ.
 Oregon Election, The Significance of the, W. McCamant, F.
 Oxford in the Eighteenth Century, A. D. Godley, Mac.
 Painting, Figure—The Hair, AA.
 Painting of Animals, AA.
 Paper, From Pulp to, I. Harris, Cass.
 Paris in Summer, Literary and Artistic, T. Stanton, Crit.
 Paris Prisons During the Terror, H. S. Wilson, NC.
 Patent Law, International, J. S. Fairfax, EngM.
 Patrols, Independent, C. Miller, JMSI.
 Pauline Supernaturalism, The, O. Cone, NW.
 Paupers, What to Do With Our Juvenile, WR.
 Peebleshire, the Home of the Black Dwarf, A. F. Robertson, Mac.
 Pensions, Old-Age, CJ.
 Pensions: "Our War Veteran," A. O. Genung, G. R. Scott, and J. C. Ridpath, A.
 Perfumes, The Morality of, H. T. Peck, Cos.
 Philanthropy, A Training Class in, P. W. Ayres, CRev.
 Philippines, A Typical Tale of the, RRL.
 Philippines, Malay Pirates of the, D. C. Worcester, CM.
 Philippines, The Problem of the, C. W. Dilke, J. Barrett, and H. H. Lusk, NAR.
 Philippines, The War in the, RP, August 1 and 15.
 Philosophy and the Newer Sociology, W. Caldwell, CR.
 Photographer, An Artist, AA.
 Photography, Amateur, F. Frölich, DH, Heft 16.
 Photography: Kallotype as a Printing Method, G. W. Frederick, AP.
 Photography, Pure, Versus the New Art, W. B. Bolton, AP.
 Photography: Studies of Child-Life, G. Burt, PA.
 Photography, The Progress of, J. Stuart, WPM.
 Physical Training: Its Function and Place in Education—II., E. M. Hartwell, WM.
 Physics, Influence of, F. Kohnrausch, DeutR, August.
 Piner, Arthur Wing, The Plays of, G. Kobbé, F.
 Pines of Shasta, Among the, E. H. Clough, OM.
 Playgrounds in Chicago, Municipal, C. Zueblin, AJS.
 Playgrounds, The Movement for Small, AJS.
 Poets, Forgotten, J. Dennis, LH.
 Poland, Commercial Conditions of Russian, BTJ, August.
 Political Economy, Value of the Study of, J. R. Commons, MRNY.
 Politics in Public Institutions, C. R. Henderson, AJS.
 Politics, The Outlook in Domestic, GMag.
 Poor in Great Cities, Problems of the, Alice W. Winthrop, R.

- Pope and Horace, W. H. Williams, TB.
 Postage at Last, Imperial Penny, J. H. Heaton, FR.
 Posters, Some American, Art.
 Potentates in Pinafores, Et.
 Power, Cost of Steam and Water, W. O. Webber, EngM.
 Powers, Our Interest in the Next Congress of the, T. Beale, F.
 Prachatitz, Bohemia, J. Baker, LH.
 Prayer, The Efficacy of, Virginia Y. Remnitz and Annie G. Brown, A.
 Prices, Movement of, R. Mayo-Smith, PSQ.
 Privateer, A Word for the, W. G. F. Hunt, USM.
 Privateers, Tales of the, W. L. Calver, HM.
 Projectiles for Modern Naval Ordnance, P. R. Alger, CasM.
 Projectiles, Modern Shells and, CJ.
 Psychological Experiences, Four Remarkable, B. F. Austin, A.
 Psychology and Education, H. Münsterberg, EdRNY.
 Psychology, Postulates of a Structural, E. B. Tichener, PRev.
 Psychology, The New, J. Royce, F.
 Psychology, The Teaching of, H. M. Stanley, EdRNY.
 Puerto Rico, Our New Island, E. Deland, Chaut.
 Quakers: A Vanished Race, J. D. Hilton, SunM.
 Railway, Above the Clouds by, A. S. Ghosh, WWM.
 Railway Reports, The Oddities of, S. J. Murray, JF.
 Railway Rates, The Decline in, H. T. Newcomb, JPEcon.
 Railways of London, The Underground, F. E. Cooper, EngM.
 Rayleigh, Lord, The Scientific Work of, O. Lodge, NatR.
 Recruit and His Physical Training, The, J. Will, USM.
 Red Cross Society, The Home of the, S. L. Hetterson, Chaut.
 "Religion, The Making of," G. Tyrrell, M.
 Renan, Ernest—II., M. Vernes, DeutR, August.
 Republic and the Empire, The, J. C. Ridpath, A.
 Revenue Policy of the United States, Future, BankNY.
 Revolution, The Story of the—Greene's Campaign in the South, H. C. Lodge, Scrib.
 Rhine, A Cycling Tour on the, J. W. Bowman, YM.
 Rhyme, An Inquiry as to, B. Matthews, Bkman; Long.
 Riley, James Whitcomb: His Poetry, B. Carmen, AM.
 Ritualism, The Dangers of, G. D. Vecchia, WR.
 River Residences, A. W. Myers, CasM.
 Rockies, Reminiscences of the, H. Seton-Karr, Bad.
 Roman Catholics of America, The, A. P. Doyle, FrL.
 Romanoffs of To-day, G. Holme, MM.
 Rome, The King of, A. de Ridder, RG, August.
 Rougemont, Louis de, The Adventures of, WWM.
 Royal Houses, The Extinction of, J. C. Ridpath, A.
 Rubens at Home, E. Michel, RDM, August 1.
 Rupshu, Our Ride Through, C. Bolitho, C.
 Russia, The Two Policies of, NR, August 15.
 Russian Army, The—1., O. Kuylenstierna, USM.
 Russian Life, Scenes of, A. N. Gontschareff, BU, August.
 Ryan, Father—Some Unpublished Thoughts, C. A. Malone, R.
 Ryland, Henry, Art Worker, Art.
 St. Fillans, Julia Cartwright, AJ.
 St. Lawrence Route and Manitoba Grain Trade, E. Farrer, CanM.
 St. Paul and Social Relations, W. E. McLennan, MRNY.
 St. Xavier, The Sons of, Lydia S. Flintham, CW.
 Salons, The Paris, MA.
 Salvation Army, The, J. Hollins, CR.
 San Francisco, Church and Convent of, B. O'Reilly, R.
 Sanitary Work, A Quarter Century of, A. N. Bell, San.
 San Sebastian, The Siege of, W. H. Fitchett, C.
 Santiago After the Surrender, Anna N. Benjamin, Out.
 Saturday Club—Boston, G. W. Cooke, NEM.
 Savages at Play—II., F. Bayard, WWM.
 Scandinavian Current Belles-Lettres, R. N. Bain, Cosmop.
 Schools, Suggestions for Improvement of City, H. Sabin, Ed.
 Science, Fifty Years of American, W. J. McGee, AM.
 Scott, Sir Walter, The Lairds of, T. Duncan, Scots.
 Scottish People, Characteristics of the, W. W. Smith, Chaut.
 Sculpture, Celtic, J. Romilly Allen, IntS.
 Sculpture Designs for the Park Row Syndicate Building, Elizabeth E. Newport, AI.
 Sculpturing in the Arctic, A. Operti, HM.
 Sea, The Exploration of the, C. M. Blackford, NAR.
 Seawanhaka Knockabouts' First Cruise, The, O.
 Seneca Indians, The Treaty of Big Tree with, J. N. Hilliard, HM.
 Sensation and the Datum of Science, E. A. Singer, Jr., PRev.
 Servant Class, The, B. Hall, A.
 Seven Wonders of the World, The—The Colossus of Rhodes and The Temple of Diana at Ephesus, B. I. Wheeler, CM.
 Sewage Purification, R. Hering, EngM.
 Shell Cameos, On the Working of, L. Beatrice Thompson, AJ.
 Shop Costs, Finding and Keeping, H. Roland, EngM.
 Sights, Telescopic, T. N. Horn, JMSI.
 Sikhs, The Record of the, F. F. Gibbon, GM.
 Silver Question, The, W. M. Fishback, A.
 Slavery in Early Texas, L. G. Bugbee, PSQ.
 Social and Economic Conditions, B. O. Flower, A.
 Social and Ethical Interpretations in Mental Development, J. Dewey, NW.
 Social Elevation? What Is, H. Spencer, NC.
 Social Passion in Modern English Essayists, Vida D. Scudder, Chaut.
 Socialism in Spain, G. Maze-Sencier, RPP, August 10.
 Sociology, Unit of Investigation in, S. McC. Lindsay, AAPS.
 Solomonic Literature, M. D. Conway, OC.
 Song, The Hearing of a, W. J. Baltzell, Mus.
 Southern Women, Opportunities for, J. Dowd, GMag.
 Spain, Anthropological Sciences in, L. de Hoyes Sains, EM, August.
 Spain and America, E. Castelar, EM, August.
 Spain as a Republic, W. M. Handy, Chaut.
 Spaniard at Home, The, Hannah Lynch, Black.
 Spanish Dynasty, the Queen Regent, and the Court, The, E. P. Bazán, DeutR, August.
 Spy Mania and the Revanche Idea, The, A. D. Vandam, FR.
 Stevenson, Mrs. Robert Louis, Interview with, G. Burgess, Bkman.
 Stockbridge, Recollections of, A. E. T. Watson, Bad.
 Strike of Colliers in South Wales, WR.
 Sudermann (Hermann) in English, Marie L. van Vorst, Bkman.
 Suffrage, Educational Qualifications for the, G. H. Haynes, PSQ.
 Superstitions of Europe, Popular, D. G. Brinton, CM.
 Surgery, Recent Military, N. Senn, JMSI.
 Talmud, Perpetuation of Biblical Law Through the, M. Lazarus, DeutR, August.
 Tammany Hall and the Police Scandals of New York, A. Nerincz, RG, August.
 Taxes, Direct and Indirect, C. J. Bullock, PSQ.
 Taxes, The Suppression of, A. Veber, R Soc, August.
 Temple of Diana at Ephesus, The, B. I. Wheeler, CM.
 Tennyson, the Man, C. Fisher, GM.
 Territory, A New Method of Acquiring, J. W. Stillman, GBag.
 Theaters in Suabia, Peasant, J. Lautenbacher, DH, Heft 15.
 Theatrical Audiences, H. Waring, WM.
 Tides, Atlantic Estuarine, M. S. W. Jefferson, NatGM.
 Tilden, Douglas, a California Sculptor, Elizabeth K. Tompkins, MM.
 Toqueville, Alexis de, and His Book on America, D. C. Gilman, CM.
 Total Abstinence Movement, The Future of the, CW.
 Tolstoy and His Theories, R. Riordan, Crit.
 Tolstoy, Count, D. September 1.
 Torpedo Guns Afloat and Ashore, E. L. Zalinski, CasM.
 Trade Unions, The Belgian Law Affecting, R. P. Castelein, RefS, August 16.
 Trans-Siberian Railway and Siberia, The, P. Leroy-Beaulieu, RDM, August 15.
 Transvaal, Suzerainty Over the, A. M. White, WR.
 Trevelyan, Mrs. John, C. H. Hart, CM.
 Trees, Wonderful, S. F. A. Caulfield, Str.
 Tripoli from Barbary, To, M. Idoux, NR, August 15.
 Trusts Versus the Town, C. D. Chamberlin, GMag.
 Turk at Home, The, S. Whitman, Harp.
 Tyroleans, The, C. F. Dewey, Cos.
 United States in Foreign Military Operations, A. B. Hart, Harp.
 United States: Isolation or Imperialism? J. R. Procter, F.
 United States, Policy of the, J. Bryce, Harp.
 United States, The Finances of the, R. G. Lévy, RDM, August 1.
 United States, The Growth of the, W. J. McGee, NatGM.
 United States: The Month in America, A. M. Low, NatR.
 United States, The New Fiscal Policy of the, W. C. Ford, Harp.
 United States: "The Nation's Crisis," A. B. Ronne, APS.
 United States: The Territory with which We Are Threatened, W. Reid, CM.
 United States: Thoughts on American Imperialism, C. Schurz, CM.
 University Extension in Kentucky, W. G. Frost, Out.
 Vegetarianism, P. Carus, OC.
 Venetia and Tuscany, D. Halévy, RP, August 1.
 Venice and the Lido, G. Secretant, NA, August 1.
 Virginia, The Political Temper of, J. H. Babcock, Chaut.
 Vitalism, J. Haldane, NC.
 Volcanoes, The Marvelous Action of, C. Moffett, McCl.
 Wage Movement, The Living, H. W. Macrosty, PSQ.
 War With Spain:
 Aftermath at Santiago, P. MacQueen, NatM.
 A Lesson of the War, L. Bell, NatM.
 Alone in Porto Rico, E. Emerson, Jr., CM.
 An Artist at El Poso, H. C. Christy, Scrib.
 A Warship Community, W. J. Henderson, Scrib.
 A Wounded Correspondent's Recollections of Guasimas, E. Marshall, Scrib.
 Canteens and Christianity in the Camps, R. A. Torrey, Misk.
 Cost and Finances of the Spanish War, C. A. Conant, AMRR.
 Engineering Lessons from the War, H. S. Maxim, EngM.
 How the News of the War Is Reported, R. S. Baker, McCl.
 How the Spaniards Fought at Caney, J. E. Chamberlin, Scrib.

- Incidents of the Cuban Blockade, W. Russell, CM.
 In the Face of the Yellow Flag, E. R. Lamson, NatM.
 Naval Lessons from Santiago, GMag.
 Results of the War, GMag.
 The Destruction of Cervera's Fleet, G. E. Graham and W. A. M. Goode, McCl.
 The Horse in the Present War, G. Willets, NatM.
 The Occupation of Porto Rico, J. A. Church, AMRR.
 The Rough Riders' Fight at Guasimas, R. H. Davis, Scrib.
 The War as a Suggestion of Manifest Destiny, H. H. Powers, AAPs.
 The War Between Spain and the United States—IV., E. A. Walcott, OM.
 War Loan, Lessons of Our, F. A. Vanderlip, F.
 War Time Snap Shots, MM.
 Warship Design, Speed as an Element of, W. M. McFarland, CasM.
 Warship's Battery, A. H. H. Lewis, FrL.
 Warships Were Built, How Our First, A. Appleton, HM.
 War-Songs, Frances M. Butler, Lipp.
 War Veteran, Our, A. O. Genung, G. R. Scott, and J. C. Ridpath, A.
 Washington, The Literary Women of, Etta R. Goodwin, Chaut.
 Waterloo, The Battle of, H. Houssaye, RDM, August 1 and 15.
 Weather, How to Foretell, by the Clouds, A. J. Henry, LHJ.
 White Mountains, In the, F. Furbush, NatM.
 Wilhelmina, Queen, SunM.
 Wilhelmina, Queen, Coronation of, J. H. Gore, LHJ.
 Witchcraft in Ancient India, M. Winternitz, NW.
 Workers, The—The West—VI., W. A. Wyckoff, Scrib.
 Wounded, Transportation of the, J. P. Kimball, JMSI.
 Women, College, and the New Science, Charlotte S. Angstrom, APS.
 Women in Early Castilian Literature, J. Perez de Guzman, EM, August.
 Woman Movement in the United States, The, Harriet H. Robinson, RPP, August 10.
 Woman, The Extra, R. T. Lang, WR.
 Woman's Future Position in the World, Lizzie M. Holmes, A.
 Workmen's Compensation Act in Operation, The, BankL.
 Wyoming Valley, Pa., The Story of, J. P. Ritter, FrL.
 Xante and the Church of St. Victor, F. Goebel, DH, Heft 16.
 Yang-tse Valley and Its Trade, The, A. Little, CR.
 Yorkshire, The Great White Horse of, H. Brierley, GM.
 Zangwill, Israel, Men.
 Zanzibar, The Agricultural Products of, BTJ, August.
 Zulus, A Sunday Among the, Miss A. Werner, SunM.

Abbreviations of Magazine Titles used in the Index.

[All the articles in the leading reviews are indexed, but only the more important articles in the other magazines.]

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|---|--|---|
| AP. American Amateur Photographer, N. Y. | DR. Dublin Review, Dublin. | NatM. National Magazine, Boston. |
| ACQ. American Catholic Quarterly Review, Phila. | ER. Edinburgh Review, London. | NatR. National Review, London. |
| AHR. American Historical Review, N. Y. | Ed. Education, Boston. | NCR. New Century Review, London. |
| AJS. American Journal of Sociology, Chicago. | EdRL. Educational Review, London. | NEM. New England Magazine, Boston. |
| AJT. American Journal of Theology, Chicago. | EdRNY. Educational Review, N. Y. | NW. New World, Boston. |
| ALR. American Law Review, St. Louis. | EngM. Engineering Magazine, N. Y. | NC. Nineteenth Century, London. |
| AMonM. American Monthly Magazine, Washington, D. C. | El. English Illustrated Magazine, London. | NAR. North American Review, N. Y. |
| AMRR. American Monthly Review of Reviews, N. Y. | EM. España Moderna, Madrid. | NR. Nouvelle Revue, Paris. |
| AAPS. Annals of the American Academy of Pol. and Soc. Science, Phila. | FR. Fortnightly Review, London. | NA. Nuova Antologia, Rome. |
| APS. Appleton's Popular Science Monthly, N. Y. | F. Forum, N. Y. | OC. Open Court, Chicago. |
| ARec. Architectural Record, N. Y. | FrL. Frank Leslie's Monthly, N. Y. | O. Outing, N. Y. |
| A. Arena, Boston. | GM. Gentleman's Magazine, London. | Out. Outlook, N. Y. |
| AA. Art Amateur, N. Y. | GBag. Green Bag, Boston. | OM. Overland Monthly, San Francisco. |
| AI. Art Interchange, N. Y. | GMag. Gunton's Magazine, N. Y. | PMM. Pall Mall Magazine, London. |
| AJ. Art Journal, London. | Harp. Harper's Magazine, N. Y. | PRev. Philosophical Review, N. Y. |
| Art. Artist, London. | HM. Home Magazine, N. Y. | PA. Photo-American, N. Y. |
| AM. Atlantic Monthly, Boston. | HomR. Homiletic Review, N. Y. | PL. Poet-Lore, Boston. |
| Bad. Badminton, London. | IJE. International Journal of Ethics, Phila. | PSQ. Political Science Quarterly, Boston. |
| BankL. Bankers' Magazine, London. | IntS. International Studio, London. | PRR. Presbyterian and Reformed Review, Phila. |
| BankNY. Bankers' Magazine, N. Y. | IA. Irrigation Age, Chicago. | PQ. Presbyterian Quarterly, Columbia, S. C. |
| BW. Biblical World, Chicago. | JAES. Journal of the Ass'n of Engineering Societies, Phila. | QJEcon. Quarterly Journal of Economics, Boston. |
| BSac. Bibliotheca Sacra, Oberlin, O. | JF. Journal of Finance, London. | QR. Quarterly Review, London. |
| BU. Bibliothèque Universelle, Lausanne. | JMSI. Journal of the Military Service Institution, Governor's Island, N. Y. H. | RN. Rassegna Nazionale, Florence. |
| Black. Blackwood's Magazine, Edinburgh. | JPEcon. Journal of Political Economy, Chicago. | RefS. Réforme Sociale, Paris. |
| BTJ. Board of Trade Journal, London. | Kind. Kindergarten Magazine, Chicago. | RRL. Review of Reviews, London. |
| Bkman. Bookman, N. Y. | K. Knowledge, London. | RRM. Review of Reviews, Melbourne. |
| CanM. Canadian Magazine, Toronto. | LHJ. Ladies' Home Journal, Phila. | Revue de Paris, Paris. |
| Cass. Cassell's Magazine, London. | LH. Leisure Hour, London. | RDM. Revue des Deux Mondes, Paris. |
| CasM. Cassell's Magazine, N. Y. | Lipp. Lippincott's Magazine, Phila. | RG. Revue Générale, Brussels. |
| CW. Catholic World, N. Y. | LQ. London Quarterly Review, London. | RPP. Revue Politique et Parlementaire, Paris. |
| CM. Century Magazine, N. Y. | Long. Longman's Magazine, London. | RSoc. Revue Socialiste, Paris. |
| CJ. Chambers's Journal, Edinburgh. | LuthQ. Lutheran Quarterly, Gettysburg, Pa. | R. Rosary, Somerset, Ohio. |
| CR. Charities Review, N. Y. | McCl. McClure's Magazine, N. Y. | San. Sanitarian, N. Y. |
| Chaut. Chautauquan, Meadville, Pa. | Mac. Macmillan's Magazine, London. | SRev. School Review, Chicago. |
| CR. Contemporary Review, London. | MA. Magazine of Art, London. | Scots. Scots Magazine, Perth. |
| C. Cornhill, London. | Men. Menorah Monthly, N. Y. | Scrib. Scribner's Magazine, N. Y. |
| Cosmop. Cosmopolis, London. | Met. Metaphysical Magazine, N. Y. | SR. Sewanee Review, Sewanee, Tenn. |
| Cos. Cosmopolitan, N. Y. | MRN. Methodist Review, Nashville. | Str. Strand Magazine, London. |
| Crit. Critic, N. Y. | MRNY. Methodist Review, N. Y. | SunM. Sunday Magazine, London. |
| Dem. Demorest's Family Magazine, N. Y. | MidM. Midland Monthly, Des Moines, Iowa. | TB. Temple Bar, London. |
| DH. Deutscher Hausschatz, Regensburg. | MisH. Missionary Herald, Boston. | USM. United Service Magazine, London. |
| DeutR. Deutsche Revue, Stuttgart. | MisR. Missionary Review, N. Y. | WR. Westminster Review, London. |
| D. Dial, Chicago. | Mon. Monist, Chicago. | WM. Werner's Magazine, N. Y. |
| | M. Month, London. | WWM. Wide World Magazine, London. |
| | MunA. Municipal Affairs, N. Y. | WPM. Wilson's Photographic Magazine, N. Y. |
| | MM. Munsey's Magazine, N. Y. | YR. Yale Review, New Haven. |
| | Mus. Music, Chicago. | YM. Young Man, London. |
| | NatGM. National Geographic Magazine, Washington, D. C. | YW. Young Woman, London. |

THE AMERICAN MONTHLY REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

CONTENTS FOR NOVEMBER, 1898.

Commission Investigating the War Department.....Frontispiece

The Progress of the World—

The Political Situation.....	499
Military Versus Naval Administration.....	499
The Pending Inquiry.....	500
Support the President Till the War is Ended.....	502
The New York Campaign.....	502
Mr. Croker's Ticket.....	503
Questions at Issue.....	504
The New York Independents.....	504
Politics and the Bench.....	505
The Stir-Up in Pennsylvania Politics.....	505
The Contest in New Jersey.....	506
In New Hampshire.....	506
Issues in Connecticut.....	507
Massachusetts' State Campaign.....	507
Campaigning in the Northwest.....	508
Beyond the Missouri.....	508
Southern Political Notes.....	509
The California Campaign.....	510
Indian Troubles in Minnesota.....	511
The Fight at Leech Lake.....	511
An Industrial War in Illinois.....	512
Rights and Wrongs of the Matter.....	513
Sophistries of the Wiseacres.....	513
Spanish Delays in Cuba.....	514
We Take Possession in December.....	514
Quibbling Over the "Cuban" Debt.....	515
Other Questions of Detail.....	516
Plans for American Occupation.....	516
What General Wood has Done for Santiago.....	516
Porto Rico Annexed.....	517
Destination of the "Iowa" and "Oregon".....	517
Another Object-Lesson.....	518
The New Panama Pretensions.....	518
A Seasonable Topic.....	519
Changes in China.....	519
France, England, and the Nile.....	519
Crete Rescued at Last.....	520
Germany in the East.....	520
Obituary Notes.....	520

With portraits of David J. Hill, John M. Wilson, Greenville M. Dodge, James A. Beaver, Phineas S. Conner, Urban A. Woodbury, Evan P. Howell, Charles Denby, Alexander McD. McCook, James A. Sexton, Frank S. Black, Timothy L. Woodruff, Augustus Van Wyck, Theodore Roosevelt, Richard Croker, Hugh McLaughlin, Theodore Bacon, John Wanamaker, Matthew S. Quay, William A. Stone, Silas C. Swallow, George E. Lounsbury, Roger Wolcott, H. S. Pingree, A. B. Bruce, William Henry Eustis, John Lind, James G. Maguire, Henry T. Gage, Major Wilkinson, John R. Tanner, the American members of the peace commission, the Spanish members of the peace commission, Frederick D. Grant, the late Queen Louise of Denmark, with her daughters, and the late Thomas F. Bayard, and other illustrations.

Record of Current Events..... 521

With portraits of Joseph Simon, John F. Carroll, and the late Sherman Hoar.

Colonel Roosevelt and Others in Caricature.. 524

The Army and Navy "Y. M. C. A."..... 529

By Albert Shaw.

With portraits of George H. Stuart, Col. John J. McCook, W. B. Millar, and Charles W. McAlpin, facsimiles of letters, and other illustrations.

The Newspaper Correspondents in the War.. 538

With portraits of Grover Flint, Henry Norman, James L. Creelman, Richard Harding Davis, F. L. Stickney, Frederic Remington, Julian Hawthorne, J. E. Chamberlain, Edward Marshall, Stephen Crane, Alexander C. Kenealy, John T. McCutcheon, Malcolm McDowell, Sylvester Scovel, Murat Halstead, and William R. Hearst.

My Experiences at Santiago..... 542

By James Creelman.

With portrait of Mr. Creelman and other illustrations.

An Impeachment of Modern Italy..... 547

By "Ouida."

With portraits of King Humbert, Queen Margherita, the Prince of Naples, the Princess of Naples, ex-Premier Crispi, the Marquis di Rudini, and General Barmecaris, and scene during Milan riots.

A Reply to Ouida's Impeachment of Modern Italy..... 561

By Giovanni Della Vecchia.

The Nicaragua Canal in the Light of Present Politics..... 566

By Lindley M. Keasbey.

The Nicaragua Canal and Our Commercial Interests..... 571

By Emory R. Johnson.

With chart.

Leading Articles of the Month—

The Czar's Message to the Nations.....	577
Will Russia Dominate the World?.....	580
England in China.....	582
American Interests in China.....	583
England and the Nicaragua Canal.....	585
Arguments Against Expansion.....	586
What Shall Be Done About the Philippines?.....	588
The Official History of Sampson's Cruise.....	589
Naval Lessons of the War.....	589
In Santiago During the Siege.....	591
General Weyler the Man.....	592
Our War Department.....	592
The Conduct of the Cubans in the Late War.....	593
Theodore Roosevelt at Home.....	594
More Light on the Dreyfus Case.....	595
"The Anglo-German Agreement".....	596
King Leopold's Black Empire.....	597
The Kaiser's Plans in Palestine.....	598
How Kitchener Remade the Egyptian Army.....	599
How to Regenerate the Soudan.....	600
England and America.....	601
"Charming Links in the Anglo-American Alliance".....	602
A Woman's Newspaper.....	603
Working Girls' Homes.....	604
Francis Joseph of Austria.....	604
Mark Twain's Plea for High Tragedy.....	605

The Periodicals Reviewed..... 606

The New Books..... 616

Index to Periodicals..... 620

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Gen. Grenville M. Dodge,
Chairman.

COMMISSION INVESTIGATING THE WAR DEPARTMENT. (Gen. Joseph Wheeler testifying.)